



**ANA SOFIA  
RIBEIRO  
DOS SANTOS**

**O INGLÊS COMO LÍNGUA DE INSTRUÇÃO NA  
FINLÂNDIA E EM PORTUGAL**

**ENGLISH AS MEDIUM OF INSTRUCTION IN  
FINLAND AND IN PORTUGAL**



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Dissertação apresentada à Universidade de Aveiro para cumprimento dos requisitos necessários à obtenção do grau de Mestre em Ensino Superior – Erasmus Mundus, realizada sob a orientação científica do Dr. Carlos José de Oliveira e Silva Rodrigues, Professor Auxiliar da Secção Autónoma de Ciências Sociais e Jurídicas da Universidade de Aveiro, e com a co-supervisão do Prof. Leo Goedegebuure, Professor Associado da Universidade de Melbourne e Director adjunto do Instituto LH Martin

Thesis presented to the University of Aveiro to fulfil the formalities essential to obtain the degree of European Master in Higher Education (Erasmus Mundus), done under the scientific supervision of Dr. Carlos José de Oliveira e Silva Rodrigues, Professor Auxiliary at the Autonomous Section of Social, Juridical and Political Sciences of the University of Aveiro, and co-supervision of Prof. Leo Goedegebuure, Associate Professor at University of Melbourne and Deputy Director at LH Martin Institute.

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## **agradecimentos**

This master was a journey of two years in which I've learned more than I could ever put in words. I've learned not only about higher education, but also about the world and the people in it. And without some of those people, this thesis would not be possible.

I would like to thank to both supervisors, Prof. Carlos Rodrigues and Prof. Leo Goedegubure for the support and pertinent critics to the thesis, which have guided me through this research.

I would like to thank my amazing Finnish friends, Laura Neuvonen and Pekka Matilla, who have showed me the joys of life in a welfare state and hosted me in my March 2010 comeback. One day I will have a sauna too!

A big thank you to the administrative staff in all HEEM universities, particularly Yulia Shumilova at UTA, you have been a great help with the interviews and materials.

A special thanks to Alessandra Gallerano, an Erasmus Mundus ambassador that has helped me a lot navigating through DGES information (keep up the excellent work!)

A special thanks to Michael Harvey, my kiwi friend that down under in Wellington bothered to be my English editor.

A warm thank you to my HEEM colleagues that are now my friends, particularly Zaida, Yulia, Nino and Brant, it has been a pleasure to share these two years with you, many more will come.

A warm thank you to my friends in Portugal and abroad, namely Luísa A., Rita D. Rita M., Rui, Zé, Marta, Luísa R., Olivier, Pedro, Katia, Nuno, Alberto, that have welcome me everytime I came back and supported me while I was away.

A warm thank you to my mum, who has been very strong and patient with all my travelling and constant moving around.

And a whispered obrigada to David. For making me happy.

Porto, 10th July 2010

## **palavras-chave**

Política de língua ; estudo comparativo; língua de instrução; internacionalização; ensino superior; diversidade; multilinguismo

## **resumo**

Esta tese explora o tema do Inglês como língua de instrução no ensino superior europeu, através da comparação de dois países, Portugal e Finlândia. Duas universidades (a Universidade de Aveiro e a Universidade de Tampere) foram seleccionadas como estudos de caso. A investigação segue uma metodologia qualitativa aplicada às especificidades de um estudo comparativo, e a recolha de dados foi feita através de análise documental, bem como de entrevistas em ambas as instituições.

A revisão da literatura sobre o tema sugere que o Inglês como língua de instrução está associado à internacionalização, à globalização e à Europeização, e tais conceitos são esclarecidos. A política de língua no contexto Europeu e sua definição também é debatida. O neo-institucionalismo é o suporte teórico em torno do qual os dados são organizados, e consideram-se os mecanismos coercivos, miméticos e normativos ao analisar os racionais, as condições e os efeitos da introdução de programas ministrados em língua inglesa.

Os documentos nacionais e análise política de ambas as instituições revelam que a internacionalização do ensino é cada vez mais proeminente em ambos os países e que o processo de Bolonha adjuvou a sua importância, mas que a acção governamental no caso da Finlândia é determinante no número elevado de cursos ministrados em Inglês. No entanto, ambos os países têm igual participação no programa de mobilidade Erasmus Mundus, o revela que as forças supranacionais também contribuem para o aumento de programas em língua inglesa, através da importância crescente do prestígio e do posicionamento internacional que levam as instituições a iniciar estes programas.

No entanto, se isomorfismo mimético pode ser perceptível na propagação do inglês como língua de instrução, a análise também revela que as características culturais, cognitivas têm ainda uma forte influência na adopção e adaptação de tais programas, e o caso Português revela uma preocupação visível com a diversidade linguística e com a promoção da língua portuguesa, e caso finlandês destaca uma abordagem mais pragmática da introdução destes cursos, devido aos desenvolvimentos recentes na legislação educacional do país.

Por fim, a necessidade de mais investigação nesta área é ressaltada, especificamente a oportunidade de um estudo quantitativo nacional, no caso Português, e também de um estudo sobre ensino de línguas estrangeiras no ensino superior nos dois países.

**keywords**

Language policy; comparative study; language of instruction; internationalisation; higher education; diversity; multilingualism

**abstract**

This thesis explores the topic of English medium of instruction in European higher education, by comparing two countries, Portugal and Finland. Two universities (the University of Aveiro and the University of Tampere) were selected as case studies. Research follows a qualitative methodology applied to the specificities of a comparative design, and data collection was made through documentary analysis as well as interviews in both institutions. Literature review on the topic suggested that English medium instruction is associated with internationalisation, globalisation and Europeanisation, and such concepts are clarified. Language policy in European context and its definition is also debated. Neo-institutionalism is the theoretical support for data organisation and the mechanisms of coercive, mimetic and normative forces are considered when analysing the rationales, conditions and effects of the introduction of English Degree Taught Programmes. National reports and policy analysis of both institutions reveal that internationalisation of teaching is increasingly important in both countries and that the Bologna process was a touchstone to it, but that governmental action in the Finnish case is determinant in the prominent number of English Taught Degree Programmes. However, both countries have equal participation in the mobility programme Erasmus Mundus, which reveals the extent to which supranational forces also contribute to the increase of English medium instruction, through the growing importance of quality, benchmarking and international positioning that lead institutions to launch these programmes. However, if mimetic isomorphism can be perceived partially in the spread of English medium instruction, the analysis also reveals that cultural-cognitive features still have a strong influence in the adoption and adaptation of such programmes, as the Portuguese case reveals a visible concern with language diversity and promotion of the Portuguese language, and the Finnish case highlights a more pragmatic approach to English degree language programmes, due to recent developments in educational regulations. Finally, the need of more research in this area is stressed, specifically the need of a national quantitative study in the Portuguese case, and also the need of a study on foreign language education in higher education in both countries.

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## List of Acronyms

A3ES-AGÊNCIA DE AVALIAÇÃO E ACREDITAÇÃO DO ENSINO SUPERIOR (AGENCY FOR ASSESSMENT AND ACCREDITATION OF HIGHER EDUCATION )

ALCUE-LATIN AMERICAN AND CARIBEEAN HIGHER EDUCATION AREA

CERN-EUROPEAN ORGANISATION FOR NUCLEAR RESEARCH

CIMO-CENTRE FOR INTERNATIONAL MOBILITY

CLIL-CONTENT AND LANGUAGE INTEGRATED LEARNING

COST-EUROPEAN COOPERATION IN SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY

CYTED-IBERIC AMERICAN PROGRAMME OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY FOR DEVELOPMENT

CYTED-IBERIC AMERICAN PROGRAMME OF SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY FOR DEVELOPMENT

DAAD-GERMAN ACADEMIC EXCHANGE SERVICE

DBMER-DEPARTMENT OF BILATERAL AND MULTILATERAL EUROPEAN RELATIONS

DGES-DIRECÇÃO GERAL DO ENSINO SUPERIOR (GENERAL DIRECTORATE OF HIGHER EDUCATION

DRMCI-DIVISÃO DE RECONHECIMENTO, MOBILIDADE E COOPERAÇÃO INTERNACIONAL (DIVISION FOR THE RECOGNITION, MOBILITY AND INTERNATIONAL COOPERATION)

ECIU-EUROPEAN CONSORTIUM OF INNOVATIVE UNIVERSITIES

ECTS-EUROPEAN CREDIT TRANSFER SYSTEM

EHEA-EUROPEAN HIGHER EDUCATION AREA

ESA-EUROPEAN SPACE AGENCY

ESF-EUROPEAN SCIENCE FOUNDATION

ESO-EUROPEAN SOUTHERN OBSERVATORY, AMONG OTHERS.

ETDP-ENGLISH TAUGHT DEGREE PROGRAMMES

EU-EUROPEAN UNION

EUCEN-EUROPEAN UNIVERSITIES CONTINUING EDUCATION NETWORK

FCT-FUNDAÇÃO DA CIÊNCIA E DA TÉCNICA (FOUNDATION FOR SCIENCE AND TECHNOLOGY)

FINHEEC-FINNISH HIGHER EDUCATION EVALUATION COUNCIL

HEI-HIGHER EDUCATION INSTITUTIONS

HELP-HIGHER EDUCATION LANGUAGE POLICY NETWORK

IELTS –INTERNATIONAL ENGLISH LANGUAGE TEST SYSTEM

LLP-LIFELONG LEARNING PROGRAMME

MCTES-MINISTÉRIO DA CIÊNCIA, TECNOLOGIA E DO ENSINO SUPERIOR (MINISTRY FOR SCIENCE, TECHNOLOGY AND HIGHER EDUCATION)

MIT-MASSACHUSETTS INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY

NORDPLUS-NORDIC SCHEME FOR MOBILITY AND COOPERATION

OECD-ORGANISATION FOR ECONOMIC DEVELOPMENT AND COOPERATION

OEI-ORGANISATION OF IBERIC AMERICAN NATIONS FOR EDUCATION, SCIENCE AND CULTURE

CPLP-COMMUNITY OF PORTUGUESE SPEAKING COUNTRIES

TOEFL-TEST OF ENGLISH AS FOREIGN LANGUAGE

UN-UNITED NATIONS

UNESCO-UNITED NATIONS EDUCATIONAL, SCIENTIFIC AND CULTURAL ORGANISATION

## Introduction

In the framework of this thesis, it is the intent to explore the topic of language policy in higher education, particularly the internationalisation of the curriculum through English as a medium of instruction. To this effect, Portugal and Finland were chosen for institutional level analysis. To support this research problem, a conceptual framework was designed based on the definitions of internationalisation and globalisation, internationalisation of curriculum and language as a political construct and a symbolic system. The thesis also proposes a theoretical model based on neo-institutionalism and exposes the situation of internationalisation and language of tuition policies in European higher education in general, taking the example Finnish and the Portuguese examples.

### Rationales for this research

Interest on the topic of language in higher education is an important one. The reality of programmes being taught in English and being studied in countries that have other native languages than the students is increasingly more common and the U.K. is losing its competitive linguistic advantage, since even France and Switzerland are offering many courses taught through English, in order to attract international students. In fact, although many of those teaching in English across Europe will lack the fluency of native speakers, there is no doubting that learning English has become a pathway to a better education (Amroz, 2009). But on the other hand, the rise of English in lecture halls can threaten other languages and cultures that constitute the European patchwork. Also, even though a *lingua franca* is needed in order to sustain a mobility increase, it is also important to secure that those who study in foreign language have quality academic training. English medium of instruction in European higher education is a reality that is growing, though it is far from spreading homogeneously. In fact, research shows that Nordic countries are far ahead in its implementation, while Southern European countries seem to be lagging behind this trend. In the context of this thesis, choice of countries that present a very different landscape of ETDP is richer than choice of countries that present a similar distribution, as it accounts for the weight of historic and cultural contexts in the adoption of internationalisation mechanisms.

More similar countries could cloud the research and lead to results that underline unquestioned cosmopolitanism and post-nationalism (Calhoun, 2007) alone in European Higher education. In fact, the main reason that presided the choice of Portugal and Finland was that being extreme examples of ETDP and also being countries with contrasting identities, their comparison highlights that English medium instruction is not impermeable to national interpretations of its role, function and spread. Thus, the use of English in instruction cannot be considered neutral, as its adoption is perceived differently on a local level.

With these concerns present, the author outlined a general research problem as to what is the role of language policy in internationalisation of Finnish and Portuguese Higher Education. This problem can be broken down into the following research question:

- What are the differences and similarities between the type, content, target and aim of ETDP in Finland and Portugal?

Finally, this research question contains the following sub-questions:

- How is the spreading of English as a medium of instruction taking place on an institutional level?
- Is there a need for an explicit language policy in higher education? On an institutional, national or supranational level?

## **Methodology**

Research on the topic of language of instruction in higher education is scarce, and the phenomenon is usually seen as a form of curricular internationalisation, though this assumption will be discussed. Review of the literature shows that secondary analysis of pretests statistics; surveys, documentary analysis and semi-structured interviews are the most used methods while researching this topic (Huang, 2006; Kerkelaan, 2008; Wachter & Maiworm, 2008). One of the few systematic quantitative studies was made by Wachter & Maiworm in 2008 and it draws the general conclusion that English as a medium of instruction is more common in North European countries and in large higher education institutions. Though Wachter & Maiworm's results cannot be extended according to validity standards,

due to low rate of response, they can be taken as a set of clues to further research, and they have guided some of the methodological options in this thesis.

Choice between quantitative and qualitative methods is connected with topic characteristics, objectives of the research and resources available (human, financial and schedule). This research follows the interpretative/constructivist paradigm based on a qualitative approach. In short, quantitative methods are based on collection and analysis distribution of numeric data, in order to establish relations through statistic inference. In this case, even if there is a recent broad systematic study of ETDP in Finland, there is no equivalent study of ETDP in Portugal; therefore, a secondary comparative analysis is not possible. As doing an extensive study of ETDP in HEI's in Portugal was out of reach due time restrictions and expected low rate of response (one recent official study from DGES registered low participation from HEI's), the feasible research option was to portray a country background based on documentary analysis and literature review, complemented by detailed observation and semi structured interviews to actors on institutional level. Thus, the question "how" is the spread of ETDP taking place is more likely to be answered through qualitative methodology (Bryman, 2006). Also, qualitative methods are more adequate to study topics that change over time, for instance practices, roles, organisations or groups (Babbie, 2006). Particularly, perceptions on the medium of instruction policies in particular are better grasped through interviewing, given the fact that most language policies are implicit, and not easily assessed through documentary analysis. According to Patton (2002), qualitative research methods, specifically interviews, present some advantages, such as being especially suited to measuring attitudes, and able to probe further to obtain in depth responses, high turn-around to all questions, since people are more likely to answer if face-to-face, and flexibility, as the researcher is able to collect data and redirect the interview, therefore, allowing one to change focus and possibly obtain valuable information otherwise not known. On the other hand, they can be expensive if travel is necessary (in this case, the author travelled to Finland to do the interviews *in loco*), and they carry time issues, such as harmonising schedules with participants (this was challenging in this case), and transcribing and analysing the content of interviews

## **Comparative research**

Comparing is a natural human activity, though scientific comparisons require strategic methodology in order to be fruitful. According to Landman (2003), the activity of comparing countries centers on four main objectives, all of which co-exist and are mutually reinforcing in any systematic comparative study: contextual description, classification, hypothesis-testing and finally prediction. The first objective of comparative research is contextual description, with the goal of either more knowledge about the nation studied, more knowledge about one's own political system (since the comparison with the researchers own country can be explicit or implicit), or both. The second objective, classification, aims to organise the empirical data into conceptual classifications in order to group countries, or events, into categories that share common characteristics. Hypothesis testing allows the elimination of rival explanations about particular events, actors, structures in order to build (or confirm/infirm) more general theories. Prediction occurs then from all previous functions, and aims at foreseeing the outcomes of an event in other countries different from the original comparison or in outcomes of a phenomenon in the presence of antecedent factors. The author also argues that comparative research simulates the experimentation procedures of natural sciences, because the researcher *uses counterfactuals, or situations in which the researcher imagines a state of affairs where the antecedent factors to a given event are absent and where an alternative course of events or outcomes is considered* (Landman, 2003, p. 13). For instance, in this study, one hypothesis to be placed would be if the existence of English Degree Taught Programmes (taken as dependent variable) is caused by the existence of a national internationalisation strategy or to supranational common pressures (independent variables). To access this, one could pick countries with a national internationalisation strategy and countries with none, and compare then. However, since it is possible that the dependent variable is caused by multiple factors, one would also have to take into consideration the research questions and theory adopted in order to generate conclusions.

## **Problems in comparative research**

Concerning the choice of comparative methods, according to Goedegebuure (1996), most comparative studies fail on providing explanations for the data presented; in their majority,

they remain at a descriptive phase, never overcoming the problems that are posed to comparative research: equivalence, number of cases or the so called Galton problem, that poses the question how much of the characteristics of a specific culture is due to its own autonomous dynamics and how much to diffusion from other cultures.

In order to overcome these problems, Landman (2003) proposes a few strategies. While choosing among different comparative methods, one must attend to level of abstraction and scope of countries. The comparison of fewer countries is most likely supported by concrete concepts grounded in contexts. According to the author, the method of comparing few countries is divided primarily into two types of system design: ‘most similar systems design’ (comparing political systems that share a host of common features in an effort to neutralise some differences while highlighting other) and ‘most different systems design’, that compares countries that do not share any common features apart from the political outcome to be explained and one or two of the explanatory factors seen to be important for that outcome, that is, that have explanatory power.

Problems that can be posed when applying the method of most different systems are:

- The already identified Galton’s problem, when there are more factors than observations in the study, and one cannot be certain if a given event can be correlated with a cause. This can be overcome by reducing the number of variables by focusing on the key explanatory factors that are hypothesised as important for explaining the outcome. This can be achieved either by using the most different systems design (MDSD) or by having stronger theoretical specifications.
- The establishment of equivalence between theory and operationalisation of concepts, that is, the weight of cultural contexts can establish a barrier to valid comparison. This can be overcome by a careful study and knowledge of the countries selected to analyse.
- The selection bias of cases arisen from intentional choice of cases, not possible to control in this study since choice was intentional, using the most difference method, although a strong theory is a good way to sustain the conclusions;
- The omission of key variables that can account for an outcome; and finally, ecological

and individualist fallacies. This problem stems directly from the selection bias, and can be also minimised by a strong theoretical framework, such as neo institutionalism, and also by specifying all factors that can also be relevant to a given outcome.

- The making of inferences about one level of analysis using data from other level, that is, the problem of generalisation. This problem derives from data available and researcher predisposition, and can be overcome by realising that a research that specifies questions on a given level, (for instance, institutional), should collect data on that level.

### **This study**

The author has chosen to take as units of analysis two universities: the University of Aveiro, located in Portugal, and the University of Tampere, located in Finland. Both universities have English Taught programmes and concluded successfully the Bologna reforms, though Bologna was introduced much earlier in Finland than in Portugal, which must be taken into account while analysing both cases. Both countries are undergoing reforms in their national higher education systems, which also have an impact on institutional behaviour. Contextual knowledge of both universities and easy access to data were the two main criteria while selecting the universities in the sample, but the analysis of two medium size universities cannot exclude the possibility of bias, since other universities in both countries may present different characteristics and views regarding internationalisation and English Degree Programs.

According to Babbie (2006) the researcher is the main instrument on data collection therefore subjectivity is always present when doing qualitative research. The fact that the author did not speak Finnish also limited the data collection, since not all policy documents and legislation are translated into English. The interviews in Finland were also conducted in English, which may have constrained the expression of the interviewees. Also, the author's lack of experience as an interviewer may also have conditioned data collection, since a more experienced researcher could have extracted more relevant information. Finally, since equivalence of cases is one of the major problems facing comparative research (Philips, 2006), the following table



will provide an overview of both institutions.

Table 1. Universities in the sample

	University of Aveiro	University of Tampere
Geographical location	Small coastal city	Medium interior city
Type of institution	Public university	Public university
Enrolments	14.701 students	15.163 students
Number of schools	17 departments and autonomous sections, plus 4 polytechnic schools	6 faculties plus 9 independent institutes
Number of degree study programmes	50 undergraduate courses, 110 post graduate courses, and 19 post secondary courses	* (information not available on website)
Number of incoming mobility students	850	508
Number of outgoing mobility students	207	454

(Source: UA and UTA websites)

A major challenge in qualitative research is generalisation. In fact, using a convenience sample (Bryman, 2006) questions the scope of the conclusions of this study to begin with. However, and also according to the same author, convenience sampling is acceptable when the chance of gathering data is too good to miss. In this case, “ *The data will not allow definitive findings to be generated, because of the problem of generalization, but it could provide a spring board for further research or allow links to be forged with the existing findings in the area*” (Bryman, 2006: 183). This is the aim this study pursues.

# Chapter 1

## 1.1. Globalisation, Internationalisation, Europeanisation: contexts and interactions

This section is aimed at building the concepts of Globalisation, Internationalisation and Europeanisation by reviewing the existing literature on the topic and highlighting the major debates and trends on the field. The discussion is relevant, for language has always been considered an instrument of cultural identity associated with national borders. As Calhoun (2007) puts it, language is a central part of the claim that nationhood is rooted in ethnicity and shared language facilitates the existence of a claimed national community. Adoption of English language by countries with a diverse native language is generally seen as a consequence of globalisation, its introduction in the higher education institutions as an internationalisation effort and finally, as the countries in analysis are part of European Union, pressures for European integration must also be taken into account while discussing language policies.

### Globalisation

The frequent misuse of globalisation among several contexts demands its clear definition. In the context of higher education, globalisation is sometimes confused with internationalisation, though both have different stakeholders and dimensions. To some, universities were always international institutions since their medieval times, and mobility has always been a part of their cosmopolitan enterprise (Scott, 1998; Teichler, 2004). However, globalisation processes have shadow a new light to this feature of higher education institutions.

For Beerkens (2004, p. 8), globalisation is “*a process in which basic social arrangements (such as power, culture, markets, politics, rights, values, norms, ideology, identity, citizenship, solidarity) become disembedded from their spatial context (mainly the nation-state) due to the acceleration, massification, flexibilisation, diffusion and expansion of transnational flows of people, products, finance, images and information*”. The author reaches this definition by breaking down four different perspectives: those of geographical globalisation (as divergent

from local), those of power and authority (that outline their distinction from territorial sovereignty), those of cultural emphasis (that are distinct from isolation, underlining the cultural mixing) and those that focus on the institutional traits of the concept, rather than in the national. This last one suggests the emergence of a cosmopolitan identity shaped by global institutions, supported by new social organisations that transcend the borders of the nation-state. According to Nokalla (2007), the discourse of the knowledge society has been critical in curricular innovation, massification and increasing entrepreneurialism in higher education, though its existence is more a myth than a reality, since very few nations can be called knowledge economies. Still, the emergence of the network society that assumes networks of information and technology as the new morphology of social organisation and interaction, has influenced patterns of production, experience, power and culture, leading to an untamed flexibility and expansion of communication and trade (Castells, 1996).

Finally, Dale (2005) presents a theory of the relation between globalisation and education by juxtaposing two perspectives, the ‘Common World Education Culture’ (CWEC) associated with the institutional theory mentioned above, and ‘Globally Structured Agenda for Education’ (GSAE), that places emphasis on marketisation and commoditisation of education as drivers for change in higher education, in a unavoidable neo-liberal global trend. Together, they offer separate and overlapping accounts of the distinct but mutually connected structures and processes of modernity and capitalism.

## **Internationalisation**

The concept of internationalisation is approached divergently in higher education. A highly recognised definition states internationalisation as “*the process of integrating an international, intercultural or global dimension into the purpose, functions or delivery of post-secondary education.*”(Knight, 2004, p. 2). This definition is comprehensive, and views internationalisation as a process of cultural exchange between nations, where each country's identity is preserved. Another definition comes from Wende (1997, p. 19), which sees internationalisation as “*including any systematic, sustained effort aimed at making higher education (more) responsive to the requirements and challenges related to the globalisation of societies, economy and labour markets*”. This last definition sees internationalisation as a

proactive response to globalisation, confirming globalisation as an environmental condition of higher education. However, Scott (1998) establishes a dialectic relationship between globalisation and internationalisation, stating that the last is not only a reaction, but also a catalyst of the first. Following Scott's line of thought, HEI's today should embrace internationalisation as a tool to go both deeper and wider, that is, to further attend to the needs of its local stakeholders, maintaining an open attitude towards the surrounding global community.

According to Knight, existing rationales for internationalisation can be classified as social-cultural, political, economic, and academic. The author also focuses the emerging importance of national level rationales as well as institutional, as summarised in Table 2.

Table 2. Rationales driving internationalisation

Rationales	Existing	Of emergence importance
Social-Cultural	National Cultural identity; Intercultural understanding; Citizenship development; Social and community development	<i>National Level</i> Human Resources development; Strategic Alliances; Income generation/Commercial trade;
Political	Foreign Policy; National security; Technical assistance; Peace and mutual understanding; National identity; Regional identity;	Nation building/institution building; Social/Cultural development and mutual understanding
Economic	Economic growth and competitiveness; Labor market Financial incentives	<i>Institutional level</i> International branding and profile; Quality enhancement/international standards
Academic	Extension of Academic horizon; Institution building; Profile and status; Enhancement of Quality; International academic standards; International dimension to research and teaching	Alternative income generation Student and staff development Networks and strategic alliances Knowledge production

(Source: Knight, 2007).

## **Europaenisation**

Europeanisation is defined by Teichler (2004) as the regionally defined version of either internationalisation or globalisation, and addresses most frequently the areas of cooperation and mobility, covering the integration and convergence of contexts, structures and substance. The Erasmus programme, now replaced by the Life Long Program, was a pioneer initiative in this area. According to Marginson and Van der Wende (2009), the Bologna Process, aiming at building a European Higher Education Area through the establishment of a two-tier structure, and a credit system that allows equivalence of degrees across countries, and the Lisbon Strategy, that aim to transform Europe into the most dynamic and competitive knowledge-based economy in the world, provide good examples of the Europeanisation process. The Bologna process, as a collective and voluntary effort to attain convergence and enhance the competitive character of European higher education, has extended its intervention into the conception of a European Qualifications Framework, the harmonisation of competences and learning outcomes, a reform of a third cycle of studies (PhD) and accreditation and quality European regulations. This expansion of the reform comes together with some signs of diversification, particularly within countries, due to differences in implementation of reforms, and in some cases, to a larger autonomy granted to institutions (Witte, 2006). On the other hand, the Lisbon strategy, developed in a supranational form, materialises as recommendations that are not mandatory, but are taken into account on the basis of public pressure. General goals of improving quality and access, and opening up higher education to world participation were set, and an example of their operationalisation is the Erasmus Mundus programme, born out of the necessity of attracting “brains” to the European area, competing with the United States. Later, in 2005, by confronting the need of diversifying funding and increasing the systems’ flexibility, the Lisbon agenda took some of the Bologna’s agenda instruments as their own, such as the Diploma Supplement (Marginson & Van der Wende, 2009).

As observed by Luitjen-Lub *et alia* (2005), the key to unveiling the concepts of globalisation, internationalisation and Europeanisation resides in the mix between the cooperation and competition. Competition is strongly associated with globalisation, since it is a process that

occurs over borders, changing the special organisation of flows and relations, perceived as “external” to the higher education reality. Cooperation is often associated with internationalisation, as this is a process that calls for an intensification of the networking ties between higher education institutions, but within the national cultural and legal boundaries, and seen as a politically steered process. Finally, Europeanisation is the fruit of a close interaction between these two rationales, as pressures for both cooperation and competition preside to its actions.

## **1.2. Language: Identity, Communication and Power**

Language has a critical role within the knowledge society context, since “*Knowledge itself and the uses of knowledge are nothing new for humankind which understands itself through languages which are themselves symbolic systems for cultivating and transferring knowledge* (Hoffman & Vaalima, 2007: 11). When Wittgenstein wrote the limits of my language are the limits of my thought, he referred to the question of frontiers and borders designed by language, on one hand, but on the other he also refers to the very Cartesian essence of human being, *cogito ergo sum*. On first instance, language is associated with nationality and identity, establishing a bond between the two. This political dimension of language as a cultural vehicle is probably the rationale behind the explosiveness topic of language policy, but language has also a communicative function. Language is, therefore, a multidimensional construct that needs to be addressed in several perspectives.

Following the Council of Europe (2003) guide for the development of language education policies, a number of beliefs, denominated linguistic ideologies, support the discussion about language. These include the common assumption of the inequality of languages, that raises the questions of hegemony and dominance based on the historical, cultural and use legitimacy; the linguistic ideology of nations, whether they are monolingual or not; that associates language with a certain affective value of a shared heritage; and the linguistic ideology of economy, where the concepts of lingua franca and global English come into play.

The need of a lingua franca becomes more urgent within the globalisation context previously

discussed, since the costs of learning or translating a language are high, as so are the risks of misunderstanding. A homogeneous language habitat would maximise the efficiency of communication and benefit the labour market. English has been fulfilling this role, and it is estimated that by 2015, half the world population will have proficiency in English (Ives, 2006), a number that was mere 250 million in 1952, according to Crystal Crystal, (2003, p. 63). However, this sudden rise of English language is questioned by Holborow (1999, p. 5) that point to a much older influence of English, related to the expansion of British markets in mid-eighteenth century, and to the colonisation of America, which challenged the French hegemony. Holborow (1999) thus argues that English expansion is less connected with the advance of technology and media, as Crystal defends, and more linked to the power of capital

This spreading of English is explained normatively by Van Parijs (2004) by two basic propositions: the probability sensitive learning (that refers to the utility of learning a language plus the opportunity to use it) and the maximin law of communication (that is one chooses the learn the language that will be shared with the most users). On the other hand, De Swaan (2001) empirically defends the hypercentral position of English in a constellation composed by peripheral, planetary and supercentral languages. The author provides a measure for the Q-value of language, defining an exponential relation between native speakers and multilingual speakers. Language is in this case assumed as an collective good, that is, the more one uses it, the more value it retains, and English is an hyper collective good, due to its tendency to expand its inclusive and utility features.

Both perspectives put emphasis in the communication dimension of language, which is why we refer in this paper to English as a medium of instruction. However, the use of English in higher education can also be designated as English for Specific Purposes (Gomez & Raisanen, 2008), as English that caters for the needs of learners of other languages rather than the ones of art and languages. This category includes English for Academic Purposes, and Business English, among others. Content and Language Integrated Learning (CLIL) is often used to English taught programmes, as an immersion strategy in which learners acquire a target language naturalistically by learning content through it (Coleman, 2006). Here again, disciplinary differences can play its role, distinguishing several English sub-types and their

need according to field of expertise

English as a medium of instruction is often used as a strategy for internationalisation of the curriculum. Following OECD (1994) definition elaborated by Van der Wende, an internationalised curriculum is a “*Curricula with an international orientation in content, aimed at preparing students for performing (professionally/socially) in an international and multicultural context, and designed for domestic students as well as foreign students*”.

According to Wachter (2008: 3), the most common form of curricular internationalisation in Europe is “the delivery of a programme in a language other than the one of the country where this programme is offered, being that language English”. However, one can question if the simple translation of curriculum content into another language is enough to make it international. As noted by Chalapati (2009) cultural differences play a major role in international playground, and intercultural skills can be taught and monitored in the curriculum. Different learning styles should be taken into account while designing an international curriculum, and relying on the existence of students from different nationalities or the sharing of a common language of instruction to infuse the international dimension to a programme is to take it for granted. According to Chalapati (2009), an internationalised curriculum should comprise, among others, the ability to identify and interpret cultural differences, to work with and lead a culturally diverse team, to adjust quickly to working life in different cultural contexts and the ability to network across cultural boundaries and build transnational ‘communities of practice’. As experience shows (Teichler & Maiworm 1997), even in mobility programmes, many exchange students do not interact or are exposed to the culture of their host country outside the safety of their Erasmus cocoon, leaving with a few foreign words and a basket of party memories. Insufficient clarification of the meaning of an internationalised curriculum, and deficiencies in its operationalisation may be placing too much emphasis into English alone, while the competencies for working abroad account to more than a global language.

### **The situation of English Taught programmes in Europe**



Wachter & Maiworm (2008) conducted a European survey on English Taught programmes among 27 European countries, including Portugal and Finland. The study contains extended information about ETDP, such as volume and country distribution, institutional context, and characteristics of ETDP and rationales for introduction and operation of ETDP.

Methodologically, the study first choose to define English Taught programs as programmes taught entirely in English, covering only Bachelor and Master courses and where the content was different than Literature or English as language. It is this definition that is shares in the context of this thesis, though taking into account the Portuguese reality some PhD courses were taken into consideration as well.

When analysing the results of the survey, one must highlight that even though follow-up mailing was used, the return rate was low. Thus, the author recognises that since a substantial number of institutions did not return the institutional questionnaire or did not answered all of its questions, the results of the study are an incomplete body of data, that entails the risk of invalid conclusions. Main conclusions of the study reveal that concerning volume and country distribution, ETDP are a residual reality, unevenly spread, being far more common in north-eastern Europe, are a rare phenomena in southern European countries. Regarding institutional context, institutions that offer advanced degrees, such has PHD, are more likely to offer ETDP as well. Also, institutions with large student enrolment present more probability of offering ETDP. Another thing to notice is the strong correlation between a wide range of subjects and ETDP provision. Institutions that are more specialised in terms of study offer are less likely to have ETDP. So, the typical profile of an institution that provides English as a medium of instruction is a large, research HEI, such as a university.

Concerning characteristics of English Taught programs, they are most frequently offered in engineering, business and management studies, and social sciences, which represent 72% of all the ETDP. Almost 4/5 of all programs are master level. Most programs (86%) require a previous language exam, such as TOEFL, or IELTS as a condition to enter. ETDP programs are not only a simple question of medium of instruction, they are strongly associated (96%) with an international curricular dimension of some sort. 62% provide language training, either

in English, or the domestic language, and 85% provide a diploma supplement. Fees are charged by more than 2 thirds (70%) of the institutions), in an average that states the annual fee for domestic students 3400 € and for international students outside the European Union, 6300 Euros. Students of ETDP are mainly foreigners in the country of study (65%), against 35% of domestic students, more concentrated in bachelor degrees.

Regarding the motivation for setting ETDP, the most mentioned reason (84%) was attracting foreign students, followed by improving the skills of domestic students in order to succeed in global labor market. Sharpen the institutional profile was the third evoked response (52%). Concerning actors involved in the ETDP introduction, central and departmental institutional levels are intervening equally, and administrators (heads of international offices) and members of academic staff are also participating in a similar degree.

In the opinion of Wachter & Maiworm (2008), the introduction of ETDP in Europe is due to a response to the market and derives from economic rationales. This opinion could be framed in a larger trend of academic capitalism. Knowledge changes (Gibbons *et alia*, 2003) have led to the shift from universities as social institutions to universities as industries. Academic capitalism (Slaughter, 1997) supports an educational conception rooted on economic development and human capital, based on the notion that there is a global higher education market where supranational bodies become major actors in determining educational agendas. Competition is therefore, a driver for change. However, and according to Wachter & Maiworm, European institutions still seem to regard ETDP programmes as a way to raise the institutional profile, and increase cooperation between institutions, so this scenario is not likely to apply to the European context, where the nation state still highly subsidises higher education institutions. These conclusions will be used in design the research for the author's study, which will take Wachter & Maiworm's 2007 survey as a starting point for framing the themes for interviews.

### 1.3. Language Policy and Higher Education: Definition and rationales

Language policy can be regarded as part of a social and cultural policy. It is influenced by our perceptions on utility of a language, for scientific, business or communication purposes, and also for their weight in shaping identity, whether in local, national or broader terms. The Language Policy Division of the Council of Europe (2003, p.19) sustains that “*language policy is a conscious official or militant action that seeks to intervene in languages of whatever type (national, regional, minority, foreign, etc) with respect to their forms (the writing system, for example), social functions (choice of language as official language) or their place in education.*” This definition refers to language planning actions, specifically status planning actions (concerned with attributing particular functions to a language), corpus planning actions (concerned with the basic units of a language, codification and rules) and acquisition planning (defining how language learning is organised in education). Language policy can be initiated by governments, citizens or groups, but also on a voluntary or private sector, and takes place in a particular circumstantial set. According to Spolsky (2004), language policy exists even when it has not been made explicit by formal or written statements or established by authority, and in these cases it can be accessed by the study of language practices and beliefs in a community. The author thus highlights the need of an ecological analysis, considering language policy as a choice conditioned by the sociolinguistic situation, the influence of national or ethnic identity, the global spread of English and the recognition of language as a component of civic and human rights. Phillipson (2003) also considers a number of factors that can influence the goals of language policy, such as the degree of linguistic homogeneity or heterogeneity of a state, whether the dominant language as many speakers outside the country or the levels of literacy in languages in a given territory. Either case, and even if a language policy takes place in specific spatial-time coordinates, its meaning out borders those limits, since it is based on economic and democratic principles.

In certain contexts, such as the European Union, language policy assumes a major role, since there are at the moment, 23 official languages, and a need for equal participation from all of

them, in order to guarantee respect and avoid conflict in a multicultural environment. In the European higher education area, it has been argued (Brock-Utne, 2007; Wachter, 2008) that there is a need for a higher education language policy, since English taught programmes have been growing after the adoption of the Bologna Declaration. Recently, the European Language Council decided to establish the HELP (Higher Education Language Policy) network, based on the Nancy Declaration- Multilingual Universities for a Multilingual Europe (2006). This network aims to ensure that universities enable students to communicate in at least two foreign languages; have the confidence and know-how to improve their language skills, including learning new languages in the future; and gain experience of working in or with other countries and other cultures.

It is clear that multilingualism is seen not as a barrier to communication, but as an enrichment factor, that further reassures the affective dimension of a European identity. Also, a brief overview of European stakeholders public documents demonstrates the constant concern with the maintenance of linguistic diversity within the EHEA. The 2003 Berlin Communiqué considered that the promotion of an European dimension for higher education stresses “ *the necessity of ensuring a substantial period of study abroad in joint degree programmes as well as proper provision for linguistic diversity and language learning, so that students may achieve their full potential for European identity, citizenship and employability.* (p. 6). The Glasgow Declaration signed by the European University Association committed universities to “*reinforce the European dimension in a variety of ways, e.g., benchmarking curricula, developing joint degrees using European tools, enhancing intercultural and multilingual skills*” and made a call to national governments to “*ensure that remaining barriers to the development of joint degrees are removed and that appropriate language policies are in place, starting at the school level.*”(European University Association, 2005, p. 5). The European Students Union has also highlighted that one of the reasons that students lack the confidence to go abroad is the lack of linguistic proficiency, and that students have problems with mobility specially when languages are not a mandatory part of the curricula(European Students Union, 2009). Finally, the Leuven Communiqué stated that “*Mobility is important for personal development and employability, it fosters respect for diversity and a capacity to deal with other cultures. It encourages linguistic pluralism, thus underpinning the multilingual*

*tradition of the European Higher Education Area and it increases cooperation and competition between higher education institutions”*(Conference of European Ministers responsible for Higher Education, 2009, p. 4).

On the institutional level, language policies result from a negotiation with local and supranational demands, since the conflicting function of generation and transmission of ideology has to be conciliated with the training of a skilled labour force, the selection and formation of dominant elites, and the production and application of knowledge (Castells, 2001). As global economy rises, English increases its use in science and scholarship. This phenomena as been characterised as linguistic imperialism, as it builds on the assumption that one language is preferable to others and its dominance is structurally entrenched through more resources (Phillipson, 2003), and in diglossic societies, the formal and prestigious functions of a language are the first to disappear (Coleman, 2006). Others, consider the scenario of linguistic imperialism a simple extrapolation of a phenomena that has its roots on other factors, such as which the recognition of global interdependence, the desire to have a voice in world affairs, and the value of multilingualism in attracting trade markets, that all support the adoption of a functionalist account of English, where the language is seen as a valuable instrument enabling people to achieve particular goals (Crystal, 2003, p. 24). Generally, it is the fear of the English conquest that triggers the debate of language policy in European higher education, as the absence of clear language guidelines for higher education, whether on a local, national or broader scope, can be viewed as a *laissez-faire* language policy (Phillipson, 2003) that pays little attention to impact on primary processes and actors linguistic rights. On the researchers view, there is a need to publish in English in order to achieve career recognition, what represents hegemonic practices in knowledge production (Brock-Utne, 2007; Tietze & Dick, 2009). Further, issues of access and equity can be raised, as well as of quality (concerning language proficiency), when introducing ETDP in countries where English is not the native language, especially when the target student body comprises both native and non-native speakers. To this respect, Hughes (2008, p.16) suggests that institutions “*should develop an explicit language policy that covers first and second language users, ensures adequate proficiency, and debates what level this should be set at for access to higher education*”.

## Chapter Two

### Neo-institutionalism as tool to explain organisational behaviour

Neo-institutionalism theory has been constantly found in literature as a suitable theory for internationalisation topic (Luitjen-Lub, 2007; Nokalla, 2007; Gornitzka 2008), since internationalisation manifests itself as changes introduced in the organisational context (Gornitzka 2008). Generally speaking, “*institutional views stress the dependence of local social organization on wider environmental meanings, definitions, rules, and models. The dependence involved goes well beyond what is normally thought of as causal influence in the social sciences: in institutional thinking, environments constitute local situations—establishing and defining their core entities, purposes, and relations*” (Meyer *et alia*, 2007, p.188).

Meyer argues that this perspective is particularly useful in the context of higher education because it stresses the perspective that local higher education arrangements are very heavily dependent on broader institutions. Also the author sustains that this perspective directs the attention to cultural scripts and organisational rules built into the wider national and world environments that establish the main features of local situations. (Meyer *et alia* 2007, p. 188). In the case of this thesis topic, it seems that the existence of English medium provision in countries in which the mother language is not English could very well be an effect from a wider environment, and the cultural nature of language issues also matches this line of inquiry. Universities are cosmopolitan enterprises subject to world ranking and evaluation, and are legitimated and recognised by world authorities like UNESCO, OECD, the WTO or the European Union. Likewise, their conformity or rejection of the norms of such institutions originates similar features between them. Persons, organisations and societies withdraw from the environment the blueprints of their behavior. In the case of universities, there are associated collective authorities that tend to represent common goods and universal truths, dissolving idiosyncratic interests and exerting dominance through consented admiration, and

not power struggles. In the view of neo institutionalism, local structures embrace wider models provide guidance and facilitate action, so it is often more important to integrate legitimised proprieties than to adapt those proprieties to local contexts and constraints. Dimaggio and Powell (1977, p.3) sustain that *“the process of institutional definition, or “structuration,” consists of four parts: an increase in the extent of interaction among organizations in the field; the emergence of sharply defined interorganizational structures of domination and patterns of coalition; an increase in the information load with which organizations in a field must contend; and the development of a mutual awareness among participants in a set of organizations that they are involved in a common enterprise”*.

In this way, universities are world institutions that show around the world similar organisation and often provide the same disciplinary contents and curricula (Meyer, 2007), even if since the 19<sup>th</sup> century they became more connected with the nation state, with the subsequent divergence that the work of Clark (1983) among others, reveal. Even though, the Bologna Process can be regarded as a process that stimulates isomorphism in the neoinstitutionalistic sense. According to Meyer, also, the expansion of the university is also linked with the model of globalisation, and with the optimistic view that success and welfare can be achieved anywhere, through individual development, that is education, in a positivist cultural framework similar to the one in the 19<sup>th</sup> century. Also, globalisation carries with it competition and excellence concerns, and discourses such as the one of the knowledge society, that suits the role of the university as a legitimiser of the relevance of knowledge and its carriers.

## **Isomorphism**

The existence of a common world culture alluded by Meyer (2007), where world institutions create homogenic responses of organisations, is designated as isomorphism. This isomorphism that leads to a decrease of formal diversity can be, according to Dimaggio & Powell (1983), coercive (a result from constraints in the environment such as laws), mimetic (a defensive reaction to uncertainty in the symbolic environment, that leads to imitation of successful role-models) or normative (comes with professional or performance standards, like quality assurance, for instance). However, organisations in the same environmental context can present different responses, suggesting that a different set of values is behind their choices. To

this respect, Meyer and Rowan (1977) sustain that in order to avoid internal and external conflicts due to divergent stakeholders' demands, organisations tend to decouple themselves, isolating their formal structure from their core activities, a phenomena consistent with Weick's (1976) theory of universities as loosely coupled systems. Often changes in the institutional environment lead to changes in some elements of organisation, or even, a change initiated inside organisations impacts institutional environment (Luijten-Lub, 2007).

## **Change**

In the context of this thesis, we assume internationalisation as a process of change, composed by technological change, economic change, political-institutional change and cultural change (Gornitzka, 2008). Technological change refers to the impact of ICT technologies in the conditions of teaching and learning, changing the meaning of geographic constraint. Economic change refers to the importance universities and knowledge production assume in world trade and industry, being internationalisation in the form of a market choice. Political change refers to the progressive weakening of borders in higher education mechanisms, and the progressive notion of the world impact of national policies. And finally, cultural refers to the sense of belonging to world community that may lead to changes in practice.

According to Clark (1983), change is bottom-up, incremental and slow process, in which accommodation to ceremonial sagas and organisational mythologies is a critical success factor (Meyer & Rowan, 1977). In this sense, change occurs due to external and internal factors: it can be produced by political will, for instance, or by individual initiative of actors. Putting it more clearly, if it is noticeable the influence of common supranational pressures that produce isomorphic reactions, interpretation of this pressures on local level and their adoption generates mutual reaction both of the environmental conditions and of the intervenient. This adaptation is change.

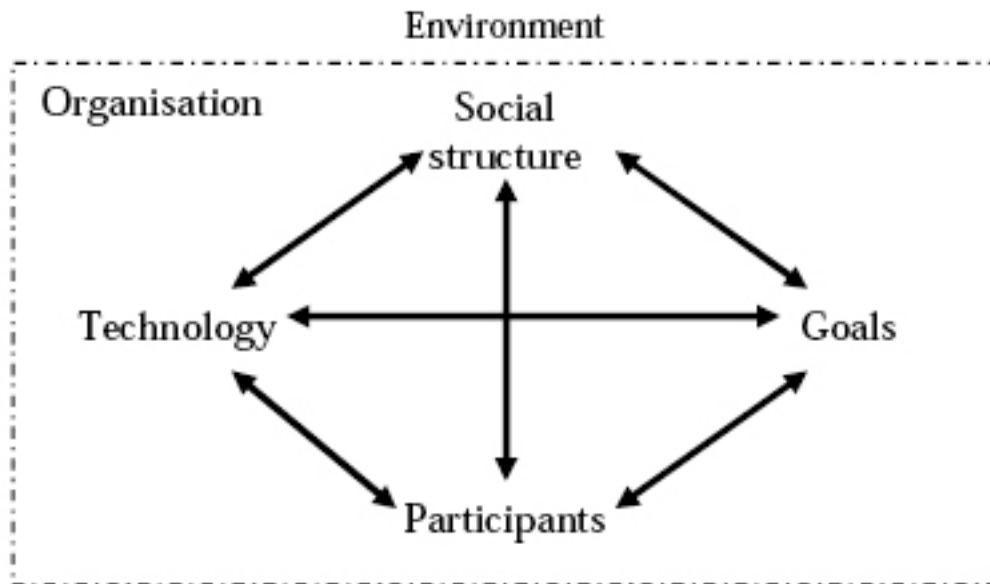
Oliver (1992) sustains that factors determinant to change in institutions are changes in political distributions supporting an established practice, changes in the functional necessity or perceived utility of an established practice and changes in the social consensus surrounding the legitimacy of an established practice.



## Organisations

Organisations are social structures created by individuals to support collaborative pursuit of specific goals (Scott *in* Lutjen-Lub 2007). Elements of organisations comprise the social structure, the technology, the goals and the actors, as shown in the following figure.

Table 3. Organisational model based on Scott (2001)



In this model from Scott (1997) organisations are perceived as open systems that interact inside their structure and react to their environment. Environment is a source of cultural assurance, and culture in an organisational context “*induces purpose, commitment, and order; provides meaning and social cohesion; and clarifies and explains behavioural expectations*”(Masland *in* Birnbaum: 72). In the case of organisations, their environment is composed by other organisations, and that is the main factor of influence (Powell and Dimaggio, 1977). Institutions are social constructs designed to create stability against environmental fluctuations, and are composed by formal rules as well by informal habits or conventions that allow us to expect certain effects from a given action.

According to Scott (2001), goals are desired ends that participants try to achieve by performing a given action or activity; they can be act the same time an trigger of action, or a restrictive influence to action. Regarding internationalisation of higher education, the mission and strategic plan of a university can address it as an explicit concern, or just refer to it in an implicit sense, not constituting a goal in itself, but and effect of the concretisation of other aims.

Participants are social actors that contribute to the organisation, and that structure them through their roles in action. Their individual characteristics and their interactions between each other can influence action decisively, allowing different organisations to connect or diverge. In the case of higher education, participants can be academic staff, administrative and managerial staff, support personnel and students, all with different responsibilities in internationalisation (for instance, an exchange student or a visiting scholar will have a different role in the internationalisation of a university than a regular one).

Social structure refers to patterns of relationships observed between the participants of an organisation. They are composed by a normative structure, where values (criteria), norms (rules) and roles (expectations) design a cultural web of the actors' intentions; and a behavioural structure, composed by the actual actions of actors. Both structures influence each other, and can be seen as a continuum. Also, in this case, one can allude to the concept of bounded rationality as used in Herbert Simon, and recall that many times, behaviour precedes intention, and that individuals tend to rationalise their choices in action *a posteriori*. In the context of higher education, important elements of the social structure are connected with the organisation of work and distribution of power and authority (Clark, 1983), and also loose coupling.

Technologies (or activities) refer in this model nor only to hardware (such as facilities or machines) but also to software (knowledge and skills of intervenient), and activities where they express, such as teaching and research. In higher education, as observed by Clark (1983), research and teaching are the main technologies of the knowledge material, and the more and less visibility they have in a given organisational context (see an university or a non university sector) can lead to differences in internationalisation processes.

## **Institutional pillars**

The main pillars of institutions, directly steaming from the three types of isomorphism identified by Powel & Dimaggio (1977), are regulative, normative and cultural cognitive. The regulative pillar refers to the establishment of rules, observe their obedience and administrate advantages or penalties according to the following of such rules, in order to control future developments. In this context, some actors may exert their power over others by means of legal legitimacy. This pillar is directly connected with the coercive isomorphism.

The normative pillar refers to conventions or prescriptions that relate to an ethic dimension of social life. These conventions though not legally established, state appropriate and inappropriate behavior in a given context, assuming the form of values and norms that actors are obliged to follow. The normative isomorphism is associated with this pillar.

The cultural-cognitive pillar refers to shared perspectives over social reality through which sense making is achieved. The observation of certain routines in a certain organisation can be partially driven by compliance with previous cultural settings, and its legitimacy comes from adopting a common frame of reference. Mimetic isomorphism is associated with this pillar.

While researching institutional responses to internationalisation, globalisation and Europeanisation, Lutjen-Lub (2007) used neo-institutional theory, operationalising the previous pillars in order to achieve correspondence with higher education context. According to the author, the regulative pillar refers in higher education to rules imposed by national or supranational entities that shape the functioning of higher education, namely in terms of funding arrangements, resource allocation and to a limited extent, quality assurance (an overlap with the normative pillar is stressed). Other type of rules refer to the steering of education, and they can address generally or particularly internationalisation processes and strategies. However, the influence of these rules is limited by institutional autonomy. Change in rules may be caused by an international development such as the Bologna Process.

The normative pillar can be observed into norms and value of academic profession, such as academic freedom, and they are shaped by tradition and heritage. Quality assurance belongs in

its genesis to this normative pillar, though it is now expressed by explicit rules and regulations, on national and supranational level.

The cultural-cognitive pillar is mainly observed in the higher education context by the nature of disciplinary differences and cultures. (Becher & Trowler, 2001: Clark, 1983). As understood by Becher & Trowler (2001, p. 23), cultures are sets of taken-for-granted values, attitudes, and ways of behaving articulated through and reinforced by recurrent practices among a group of people in a given context. Disciplines shape the behaviour of their actors by infusing the sense of belonging to a particular community specialised in a given field, with specific modus operandi and sometimes language, that originate a shared vision and narrative. Academics are more bounded to a discipline than to an institution (Clark, 1983), and disciplines can be also considered as basic units of analysis while observing change in higher education institutions (Hoffman, Valimaa, & Huusko, 2008), as they originated different disciplinary cultures.

The following table provides an overview of the relation between the concepts approached above.

**Table 4. Operationalisation of institutional theory**

<b>Institutional pillars (Scott, 2001)</b>	<b>Forms of isomorphism (Dimaggio &amp; Powell, 1977)</b>	<b>Operationalisation in Higher Education (Lutjen –Lub, 2007)</b>
Regulative	Coercive (environmental constraint through laws)	Steering system rules, funding mechanisms, quality assurance
Normative	Normative (adoption of values and ethics)	Academic freedom, quality assurance, cosmopolitan views
Cultural-cognitive	Mimetic (conformity to group and environment)	Disciplinary cultures and differences; institutional cultures (Becher & Trowler, 2001)

This approach has been consistently found on internationalisation of higher education literature, with strong heuristic power on the non-profit sector, and generally integrates the anarchic, collegial, bureaucratic and political features present in HEI's.

## Chapter 3

### Portugal & Finland: two small countries

Internationalisation of Higher Education in Portugal and in Finland has been discussed in several studies. Both countries share a peripheral geographical positioning within the European Union landscape, and a small dimension. However, historical and cultural conditions have made them take very different approaches to internationalisation. Also, both countries are undergoing some major changes in their higher education systems. .

#### 3.1.The case of Portugal

##### The Portuguese Higher Education system

The Portuguese higher education system is a binary training system, constituted by the sub-systems of university and polytechnic, with more than 150 higher education institutions. It allows public and private funded institutions. The Decree-Law No 74/2006 introduced the Bologna principles in 2006, and originated a new organisation of higher education, regarding study cycles and their duration. The reform is completed in 2010, with Portugal being among the 5 countries that were the fastest to apply the Bologna principles, but not without heated public debate. Now Portuguese higher education offers a *licenciado* degree equivalent to 6 to 8 semesters, a master's degree correspondent to 3 to 4 semesters and a PhD degree.

Portuguese higher education system is going through major reforms, namely under the New Legal Regime of Higher Education institutions, set by the Law 62/2007, that establishes new organisational and governance principles, features of autonomy and accountability, and opens the possibility for HEI's to become public foundations of private legal statute, following the general trend of hybridisation of the sector. Also, a package of specific measures was legislated in order to increase flexibility in the curricula and open up the system to

internationalisation. Such measures include the recognition of foreign diplomas, a conversion scale for foreign classifications, the recognition of formal and informal learning and their translation into credits, (in order to facilitate the Lisbon agenda goal of making lifelong learning a reality), the opening up of special methods of recruitment of students above 23 years old, and finally, the new legal structure for course transfer and reintegration of former students.

Quality was also a concern on the higher education reforms, and so the Law 3/2007 establishes the new Legal framework for evaluation of Higher Education Institutions and a new quality assurance agency as well. The Agência de Avaliação e Acreditação do Ensino Superior (A3ES) is regulated by the Decree Law n. ° 369/2007, from 5<sup>th</sup> November, and has the distinctive characteristic of independency from political power as well as from HEI's. The agency can also perform research activities, and it must include foreign experts in the evaluation process, as well as the contribution of external relevant entities in the accreditation process. Quality of services provided will be evaluated according to a first group of standards connected with the performance of HEI's (such as teaching quality, research activities, internal evaluation, organisation and other) and a second one, related to the outcomes of HEI's (service to the community, attainment rates, employability of graduates, and other). External assessment of HEI's can originate a national ranking of institutions or programmes, and a negative evaluation will determinate the extinction of the program. Evaluation results provided by other institutions (guaranteed the respect for European Standards of quality assurance) can be integrated within the assessment system.

Fees were introduced in the system in 1997, and have been increasing ever since. Student support is done through scholarships and recently, a loan scheme has been created in 2007, under the Law 309-A/2007, meant to support 3100 students in financial need and also to support periods of study abroad (also with the aim of fostering mobility).

### **The internationalisation of Portuguese Higher Education system**

Veiga, Rosa & Amaral (2006) state that internationalisation of Portuguese Higher Education is still at the initial pace due to successive changes of government and weak financial support, being the European Union funds the greatest subsidiser of international activities.

There are two dimensions to internationalisation in the Portuguese higher education context, influenced by characteristics of countries involved in the process. The cooperation with countries that have Portuguese as an official language is related with to the integration of students from the former ex-colonies (Angola, Mozambique, São Tome & Príncipe Islands, Cape Verdean Islands, Guinea Bissau, Brazil, East Timor and Macau). Another type of internationalisation is the cooperation with countries from other parts of the world and particularly within the European area.

There is no written and public accessible strategy for internationalisation in Portuguese higher education, confirming that “*the Portuguese government does not have a clear strategy for the internationalisation of its higher education system.*” (Veiga, Rosa and Amaral 2006, p. 12). However, and even tough if it seems that the internationalisation efforts should be seen in a bottom up perspective, where institutions and research centres are in charge, one can see an increasing concern of the with the area of cooperation. After careful analysis of the public websites of the MCTES agencies, one can easily distinguish between the policies for internationalisation of teaching, visible on the DGES (General Directorate of Higher Education) website, and the internationalisation of research, visible in the Fundação da Ciência e da Técnica (Foundation for Science and Technology) website.

With in the structure of the DGES, the division DRMCI (Division for the Recognition, Mobility and International Cooperation) is responsible for supporting the International Relations policy of the MCTES, in articulation with the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. In practice, these means that this division for the Portuguese participation in the activities of higher education in the context of OCDE, ONU, UNESCO, ALCUE, OEI and CPLP; for the participation in the European cooperation activities, such as the LLP, the Erasmus Mundus programme, the Tempus programme, cooperation with USA (Programme Atlantis), with Canada, the Education and Training 2010 programme (a basis to achieve the Lisbon strategy goals), and also the new Edulink programme, that fosters collaboration between EU countries



and African Caribbean and Pacific countries.

In respect to the internationalisation of science and technology, it is the Department of Bilateral and Multilateral European Relations (DBMER), integrated in the FCT, which supports the participation of Portuguese academics and researchers in international networks and organisations. This transnational cooperation refers to EU programmes and organisations, such as the 7th Framework Programme 2007-2013 and the representation in European organisations such as the CERN (European Organisation for Nuclear Research), the ESA (European Space Agency), or the ESO (European Southern Observatory), among others. Also, the DBMER supports multilateral programmes and Scientific Networks, such as COST (European Cooperation in Science and Technology), CYTED (Iberic American Programme of Science and Technology for Development), the ESF (European Science Foundation), and also bilateral agreements with countries all over the world.

Taking into account the efforts above, the OECD recommends that the Ministry of Science, Technology and Higher Education encourage the higher education institutions to take on a more proactive internationalisation role, since experience from other OECD countries shows success from including a special internationalisation strategy in annual negotiations with HEI's. This strategy could include the development of study programmes in foreign languages, the establishment of joint degrees offered in collaboration with foreign partners, the development of international research co-operation and the planned use of EU programmes, since in the analysts's opinion, is not very clear how institutions are taking advantage of all opportunities this programmes provide (OECD, 2007).

### **English Taught Programmes In Portuguese Higher Education**

According to the OECD, Portugal was in 2003 is one of the eight countries that have very few to no English degree programmes. While analysing the relation between language and internationalisation in Portugal, Kerkeelan (2008) states that there is a growing awareness of the role of language to enhance visibility and enable communication on a competitive international market, though challenges are great. The legal framework only recently allowed

courses to be delivered both in Portuguese or English, with the Bologna Process reform. Due to its linguistic heritage, Portugal succeeds on attracting foreign students from its ex-colonies (Mozambique, Angola, Brazil and others), and perhaps because of that, the need to internationalise through language was never felt, since the numbers of international students are high. Veiga, Rosa & Amaral (2006) state that there's an ambivalent attitude towards the use of foreign languages, and that in general organisations prefer to teach in Portuguese, either for preservation of national culture, or because both teachers and students lack proficiency in English. However, the OECD noticed that some changes are occurring and that there's an increase on foreign teaching staff, which sign the development of English medium instruction.

In practice, the amount of ETDP in Portugal's universities is low, being most of their existence due to joint and double degrees offered in the universities. This is the case of Erasmus Mundus programmes, that amount currently to 25 with Portuguese participation, according to DGES data, and that constitute the most visible type of ETDP in the country. Also, the Massachusetts Institute of Technology, Carnegie Mellon and University of Austin joint degrees are offered in the field of hard sciences, but most of them are Phd degrees. Some particular exceptions can be highlighted, such as the Faculty of Economics of the Universidade Nova de Lisboa, where half the disciplines on a bachelor level, and the totality of the Master and PhD courses have English as tuition language, and also the ISCTE Business school, that offers Master and Phd degrees in the field of management and marketing in English, and also non degree undergraduate training in the same areas. Both universities have a strong internationalisation strategy in specific departments, which may have led to these developments. In the remaining universities, ETDP are increasing slowly, but since there is no official study, it is not possible to point accurate numbers.

The OECD considers that *“while preserving the culturally and politically valuable traditions of offering instruction in Portuguese for students from Portuguese-speaking African countries, East Timor and Brazil, the higher education policy makers should design some effective incentives for HEIs to enlarge the basis of internationalisation. Increasing instruction in English is crucial. This could be done as the new European quality assurance system is being introduced (making the quality of institutions and programmes more transparent to European*

*and Asian students*). (OECD, 2007, p. 110). In fact, the mission of AAAES comprises a strategic preoccupation with the international dimension of quality, which can act as a lever to increase English instruction.

## **3.2.The case of Finland**

### **The Finnish Higher Education System**

The Finnish higher education system presents a dual structure, with a university sector and a polytechnic sector, both undergoing to major changes, due to recent reforms. A merger of universities and polytechnics reduced a network of 20 universities and 30 polytechnics to 11 and 26 respectively. The aim of these reforms, consolidated by the New Higher Education Act 558/2009, operating since 2010, is to reduce overlap in programs and adapt the systems to demographic transformations on one hand, and to increase internal effectiveness and enhance external competition. The most visible changes, along the resizing of the system, is the granting of an independent legal status to universities and the possibility of charging fees to students outside the European Union and EEA, admitted to a degree taught in foreign language (Eurydice, 2009). This was a matter of great public debate, since the Finnish system was known until this date to be free of charge, as their Nordic partners, not even allowing a private sector to develop in the country. Also, the Finnish Government provides financial aid to their students (permanent residents of Finland) through guaranteeing study loans, house supplement and a study grant.

The system introduced a two-tier degree structure in 2005, separating previous masters programs into Bachelors and Master degrees. Also in the same year, in line with the reforms occurring in Europe under the Bologna process, another, based on the principles of the European Credit Transfer and Accumulation System (ECTS), replaced the existing credit system. At a postgraduate level, universities also award the licenciate degree and the Doctors degree. Assessment is based on continuing evaluation, and there is flexibility in recognising

prior learning activities, institutions are free to accredit a student for higher education studies in Finland or abroad.

## **The internationalisation of Finnish Higher Education**

As noted by Vaalima (2005) the main actor in Finnish higher education is the Ministry of Education, whether the case of reforms or strategies. CIMO, the center for international mobility established in 1991, is the responsible for executing the Finnish higher education policy towards internationalisation, administering scholarship and exchange programs and implementing nearly all EU education, training, culture and youth programs at national level. CIMO also supports the internationalisation of Finnish HEI's through training, information, advisory services and publications, and is responsible also for the teaching of Finnish courses in universities abroad and as foreign language for exchange students.

Recently the Finnish Ministry of Education launched a new internationalisation strategy from 2009 to 2015, using an open and interactive methodology; with a web-based open consultation (<http://kansainvalistymisstrategia.fi>) that congregated the participation of over 1200 stakeholders in higher education, and workshops about the theme were organised, in order to produce a collective brainstorming, with 130 experts contributing with ideas. While supporting the recent reforms of the universities and polytechnics, and the national innovation strategy along with the national research infrastructure policy, the aim of this strategy is to “*to create in Finland an internationally strong and attractive higher education institution and research community that promotes society's ability to function in an open international environment, supports the balanced development of a multicultural society and participates actively in solving global problems*”(OPM, 2009, p. 10). The consolidation of this aim is made by strengthening the quality of higher education and research, confirming the views of Luijten-Lub, Huisman, & Van der Wende (2005) when affirming that internationalisation is being used to ensure or improve quality of higher education, arguing that is the only way to compete on global markets. Courses taught through foreign language play a major role in attracting outside talented students and researchers, since “*Teaching given in foreign*

*languages in Finland supports the availability of a workforce, enables reciprocal student mobility and offers Finnish students an opportunity to participate in foreign-language education in a multicultural environment in their home country. The quality of education given in foreign languages is further improved by developing genuinely international education.*”(OPM , 2009, p. 29). The Ministry of Education considers that the operating environment of higher education is changing, either in terms of supranational policy with the European Union, mobility trends or social responsibility, in the same way as), and that competition is more and more fierce. It is important to have an image and a country brand, and the Finnish recognised that they are highly considered for the excellence of their education system, and their taste for innovation. General goals of increasing quality and attractiveness can be understood in light of the recent attention given to international rankings, and the export of expertise aim is also related with the need to establish an academic network that booster’s Finnish visibility worldwide.

The concern of the Finnish Government with internationalisation is not new, and is bringing its fruits: in the last 10 years, the number of Finnish students abroad has quadrupled, and research publications with international partners have doubled from 1995 to 2005. However, when compared to other countries, Finnish teaching staff has little experience abroad (whether in training or research) and the country suffers from brain drain (more people with higher education degree are moving out than staying in the country), and the government feels that he is being put aside the educational markets.

In the context of this thesis, the author will pay more attention to the focus of strengthening an open door policy and an international society, leaving the industry ties and the research area aside. Being a country with a history of low miscegenation, the Finish government takes courageous measures, which articulated with a migration policy, aim to reach 7% of foreign undergraduates (now the rate is 4 %) and 20 % of foreign graduate students (now the rate is 15%), until 2015. For achieving this goal:

- A new mobility program is being set
- Universities will integrate a module of internationalisation in every degree offered, complemented with a mobility period or a high quality international course.

- Special counseling will be offered to foreign and immigrated students
- A system of continuing education in foreign language for teachers and staff will be implemented, and foreign language skills will be evaluated to secure the quality of education and counseling in a foreign language.

One of the key partners in the monitorisation of the new internationalisation strategy is the Finnish Higher Education Evaluation Council (FINHEEC), an independent expert body assisting higher education institutions and the Ministry of Education in matters relating to evaluation that “*will evaluate international study programs in connection with the evaluation of the reform of the degree structure. The evaluation will also pay attention to how the services provided by higher education institutions support the studies of international students in international study programs and their integration into the Finnish higher education community and society.*”(OPM , 2009, p. 54). Also, since similar measures for internationalisation have been taken in countries like Denmark or the Netherlands (particularly, regarding ETDP programs), that, comparisons will be undertaken, given the equivalence of country size, country linguistic area and importance of internationality dimension.

At the moment, the reform of the Finnish higher education system indicates that internationalisation of higher education and building up quality may create a basis for a development of the economic rationale (Nokalla, 2007; Vaalima, 2004). Also, it is stressed in the Finnish internationalisation strategy the importance that foreign medium of instruction education plays in attracting students from abroad and fostering mobility along with internationalisation at home. A brief analysis of the situation of ETDP programs in Finland will clarify to what extent these programs are implemented and with what effects.

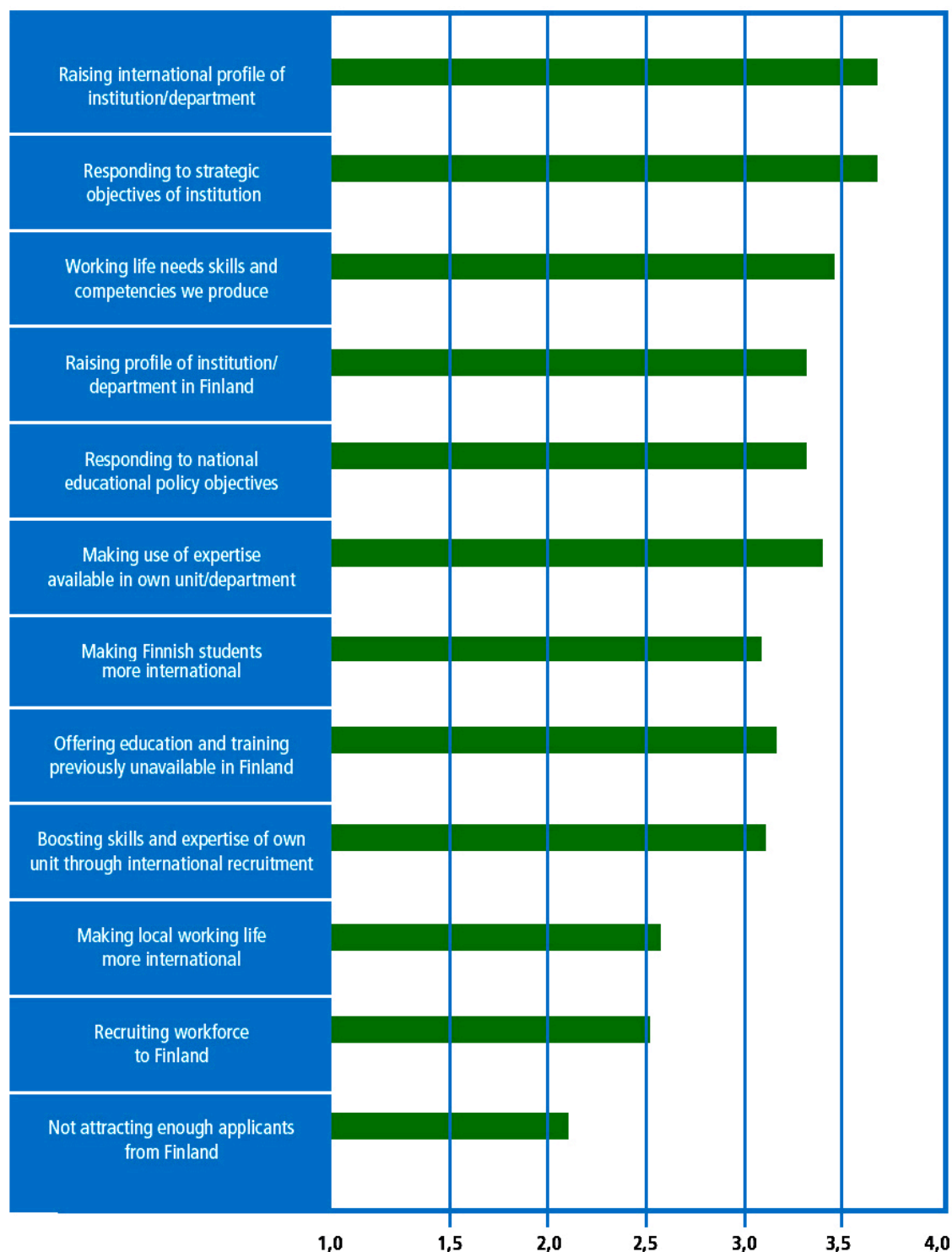
### **The situation of the Finnish Foreign Language Medium of Instruction Education**

Currently, Finland is the second country with the largest offer of ETDP in several areas (CIMO, 2009). Being a Nordic country with a very particular language, only spoken by few,

Finland felt the need to internationalise its higher education system through ETDP's much sooner (Dobson & Holta, 2001). Creation of ETDP was encouraged in the beginning of the 1990's when Finland entered the Erasmus program, through state funding. Finland is also a bilingual country, with Swedish being the second official language, so this could have also act as a facilitator in the adoption of ETDP. The Ministry of Education considers that *“The dominance of English as the language of trade, science and higher education has strengthened. Increasing attention has been paid to teaching and publication in national languages outside the Anglo-Saxon language area”* (OPM , 2009, p. 21).

A survey about degree programs taught through a foreign language was undertaken by CIMO in 2009. According to this survey, Finnish universities now offer 181 degrees taught in foreign language, 4 Bachelor level, 156 Master's level, and 21 on a PhD level. 23 % of these university degrees are double or joint degrees. All degrees are taught in English. Content of these degrees is basically an overlap of the content of Finnish/Swedish taught degrees, since only 21 out of 158 of the program heads considered their curriculum specifically designed, and this was more the case of joint and double degrees, and interdisciplinary studies. Attitude towards ETDP programs is in general positive, though it is felt by program heads that institutions could give more support to this programs, either by producing materials, or giving staff special training. Though program heads perceive the existence of ETDP as a response for goals set from above (being their existence a top-down process), the rationales for providing ETDP are also responding to labor market needs of skills and competencies, facilitation of international networking and mobility, make it more practical to give courses both to foreign and native students all together (not having to customise courses for foreigners only).

Table 5- Reasons for establishing foreign language tuition programmes in Finnish universities



Reasons to creating a degree programme in universities (Uni).

Average value (1=not at all important – 4=very important).

■ Uni



(Source: CIMO, 2009)

Also, according to the study, the expected downturn of native applicants to degree courses was not indicated as a reason for creating this sort of instruction in the interviews, being the most common reason to raise the institutional profile of the institution. 65% of students enrolled in ETDP programs come from outside Finland. The left 35% are Finnish students. Some disciplinary differences are observed in enrollments, as Agriculture and Forestry, Information Technologies and Interdisciplinary programs are almost all filled with foreign students. Recruitment is made based online through the institutions' website in English. Universities feel they do not get enough good applicants from abroad, though recruitment strategies are not very well defined and implemented. In general, international degree students have a hard time finding a place in the Finnish labor market, and recruitment services and counseling is not customised to international students. On the other hand, university' programs do not have set clear labor market goals, which creates a deficient training. Even though the knowledge of Finnish is a must have skill to find a job in Finland, just half ETDP programs include compulsory Finnish studies.

## **Chapter Four**

The purpose of this chapter is to draw the institutional profile of the University of Aveiro and the University of Tampere, regarding internationalisation activities and English Taught Degree programs. To this end, we will focus only the activities associated with mobility, since the internationalisation of research is of smaller relevance to this thesis' object.

### **4.1.The University of Aveiro**

#### **Characterisation of the institution**

The University of Aveiro is a public higher education institution created in 1973. It is known since the beginning to be one of the most dynamic and innovative universities in the country, being at the top in students' satisfaction surveys, and simultaneously, producing international quality research. It delivers both university and polytechnic degrees. The institution has strong ties with the local industries, which also makes it strong in the labor market.

The UA has scientific, pedagogic, administrative, financial and disciplinary autonomy, and it was one the only 3 Portuguese HEI's to sign in 2008 a contract with MCTES in order to become a public foundation operating under private law, a process completed in 2009. According to the information provided in the UA website, the number of students is now 14.701, of which 10619 are registered in undergraduate training, and 3,248 in graduate courses. The institution offers 50 undergraduate courses and 110 graduate courses, supported by 1081 academic staff and 457 non academic staff. There are 850 foreign students at the UA, and 270 is the number of UA students abroad.

#### **Internationalisation activities**

According to the European Policy Statement that the University submitted in 2007 to obtain the Erasmus University Charter, the UA states that its participation in the Lifelong Learning Programme contributes to the overall institutional profile, since creating an adequate

institutional culture requires regular involvement in a diverse and highly qualified international environment. Also, the UA considers that this involvement in this programme is of vital importance for the education and training of its student body, particularly towards developing sensitivity to multiculturalism, use of foreign languages and strengthening transversal competences (Universidade de Aveiro, 2007). Therefore, the UA established the goals of involving at least 10% of its undergraduate and graduate students in mobility projects, to increase the number of staff abroad, of diversifying cooperation in a wider disciplinary and geographical distribution, and finally, to ensure that this mobility brings not only returns on an individual level, but also adds value to the institution in terms of expanding the opportunities of transnational cooperation. One Vice Rector is responsible for coordinating centrally the mobility programme, assisted by the International Office. A mobility sector was created to make the connection between the International Office and the Traineeships Office. Also, each University department has one or more departmental co-ordinators for mobility programmes like ERASMUS, who are responsible for managing the mobility activities of their network of partner Universities, especially in terms of promoting the programme among the students and ensuring academic recognition for studies abroad.

Regarding information transparency, course information is available online in two languages in accordance with the ECTS Key Features guidelines and since 2007 the UA distributes the Diploma Supplement to all graduates. Specific institutional funds have been allocated to the mobility programme, financing up to 20 % of the all budget. Also, the university provides Portuguese as foreign language courses to all exchange students free of charge.

Apart from the participation in several LLP actions, the UA is also integrated in international networks, such as EUCEN (European Universities Continuing Education Network), ECIU (European Consortium of Innovative Universities) (<http://www.eciu.org>), the Columbus programme, the European University Foundation — Campus Europae (<http://www.campuseuropae.org>) or the Trodesillas Group of Universities and has strong participation in the Erasmus Mundus programme, offering currently 3 Erasmus Mundus Master Degrees (plus two former Erasmus Mundus financed masters) and participating in the external window of cooperation with Western Asia

(<http://www.erasmus.mobilityforlife.aau.dk/> ). Recently, the UA also established a partnership with Carnegie Mellon University that offers a joint Master degree and also a Phd programme in the field of Information Networking ( <http://www.cmu.ua.pt/>).

The UA also promotes cooperation with countries with cultural and historic ties to Portugal, such as Cape Verde, where it delivers 4 master programmes, providing opportunities for teaching staff of UA to travel to Cape Verde to deliver courses and providing students in Cape Verde access to a postgraduate education.

### Language of instruction and English Taught Programmes at UA

Regarding language of instruction, with some exceptions, the programmes at the University of Aveiro are conducted through Portuguese. International applicants need good knowledge of the language in order to follow the lectures, read the course material and sit the exams. International Students can obtain special permission to carry out thesis work towards Master or Doctoral Degrees in languages other than Portuguese, typically English or French. The following table presents the ETDP at UA. Classification of field derives from Becher & Trowler's (2001) classification of disciplinary differences (see table in Appendix 1).

Table 6. English Taught Degree Programmes at UA

Name	Website	Field	Qualification
FAME - Functionalised Advanced Materials and Engineering (ERASMUS MUNDUS)	<a href="http://www.fame-master.com/">http://www.fame-master.com/</a>	Hard applied	Master of Science (MSc)
JEMES – Joint European Master Programme in Environmental Studies (ERASMUS MUNDUS)	<a href="http://jemes.eu/">http://jemes.eu/</a>	Hard applied	Master of Science (MSc)
IMACS - International Master in Advanced Clay Science	<a href="http://www.master-imacs.org/">http://www.master-imacs.org/</a>	Hard applied	Master of Science (MSc)
HEEM - European Masters Degree in Higher Education (ERASMUS MUNDUS)	<a href="http://www.uv.uio.no/hedda/">http://www.uv.uio.no/hedda/</a>	Soft applied	Master of Philosophy

EMMS – Joint European Masters Programme in Materials Science	<a href="http://www.tu-harburg.de/eciugs/pro_joint_mat.html">http://www.tu-harburg.de/eciugs/pro_joint_mat.html</a>	Hard applied	Master of Science (MSc)
Master of Science in Information Networking (MSIN) (in cooperation with Carnegie Mellon University)	<a href="http://www.cmu.ua.pt/">http://www.cmu.ua.pt/</a>	Hard applied	Master of Science (MSc)
Doctoral Programme in Electrical or computer engineering (ECE, in cooperation with Carnegie Mellon University)	<a href="http://www.cmu.ua.pt/">http://www.cmu.ua.pt/</a>	Hard applied	Phd
Doctoral Programme in Telecommunications (MAPtele), in collaboration with the Universities of Porto and Minho	<a href="http://www.map.edu.pt/tele">http://www.map.edu.pt/tele</a>	Hard applied	Phd
Doctoral Programme in Computer Science (MAPi) in collaboration with the Universities of Porto and Minho	<a href="http://www.map.edu.pt/i/">http://www.map.edu.pt/i/</a>	Hard applied	Phd
FAME - Functionalised Advanced Materials and Engineering (ERASMUS MUNDUS)	<a href="http://www.fame-master.com/">http://www.fame-master.com/</a>	Hard applied	Master of Science (MSc)

### Attitudes towards English medium of instruction at the UA

The working language at the University of Aveiro is Portuguese. Only recently, some documents and the website (only some sections) are available in English to the public. In its self evaluation report from 2007, elaborated in the context of an external evaluation requested to the European University Association, the UA admits that though it aims to continue to promote the mobility of its students and academic staff and is active in international networks

and partnerships, it does not have a policy in terms of foreign language requirements, either for students or for staff. The UA also states that *“foreign language courses are available within the university for the academic community, and Portuguese language courses for foreign students are provided. Furthermore, we aim to increase the number of postgraduate programmes taught in English. As such, at postgraduate level, both staff and students will be increasingly involved in the use of English as a scientific and teaching language* (Universidade de Aveiro, 2007, p. 10). Also, in the same report, after admitting that one of its weaknesses is the low participation of students in internationalisation activities, the UA also admits that in order to reinforce its international dimension, it needs to review its language policy (Universidade de Aveiro, 2007, p. 23)

In the program of the UA’s rector, Manuel Assunção (elected in 2010) is clearly expressed the will of increasing the offer of English degree programs. The Rector assumes that the UA aims to achieve the model of research university, and that aim has to be supported by a strong internationalisation policy, that attracts post graduate students and strengthens the ties with partner institutions. The Rector states that this policy will pass by defining which master courses and curricular disciplines of PhD programmes will have English as a medium of instruction, in order to develop international competences, that can be linguistic or intercultural (Assunção, 2010).

Also, the Plan of Activities of UA for 2010 states that the objective of increasing the number of post graduate students shall be accomplished by diversifying the offer and type of postgraduate courses and through an increase of the offer to national and international audiences, by the reinforcement of bilingual medium of instruction teaching in doctoral programmes done in cooperation with universities of international prestige and by the increase of international academic experts in the above referred programmes (Universidade de Aveiro, 2010).

Overall, one can say that English medium of instruction is welcome by the institution, though it is regarded as more urgent in the PhD stage, what can be loosely interpreted into a necessity of internationalisation more connected with the research than with the teaching aspect.

## **4.2.The University of Tampere**

### **Characterisation of the institution**

The University of Tampere is a public university that exists in Tampere since the sixties' decade. Its foundation was in 1925 in Helsinki under the name of Civic College. It has an extensive and multidisciplinary research profile. It has six faculties and nine independent institutes. It is the biggest provider of higher education in Finland for social sciences and the accompanying administrative sciences. It has around 15,200 degree students and about 2,100 academic staff. The research of UTA is scientifically of high quality, nationally and internationally influential and interesting. The university is particularly strong in the social sciences fields and information technologies. Under the reforms applied by the Finnish Ministry of Education, the UTA has joined the University of Jyväskylä and Tampere University of Technology, to forms a University Alliance, a co-operation consortium that strengthens the member universities' reciprocal cooperation and clarifies the division of labor in research, education, support services and administration. In terms of the numbers of those applying for admission and of those studying towards higher university degrees the Alliance is the most attractive and extensive university entity in Finland.

### **Internationalisation at the University of Tampere**

The International Office executes mobility and internationalisation policy. UTA's internationalisation strategies aim at developing its high quality teaching and also to allow its international research to develop through the with extensive co-operation networks in teaching and research throughout Europe and beyond. The main forms of internationalisation are mobility of students, researchers and teachers, likewise the master's programmes offered through the medium of English and associated research established in fields in which the University is especially strong. The UTA has its cooperation partnerships organised into Bilateral Agreements on student and teacher mobility with over 15 universities worldwide, Fields specific bilateral agreements (determined by departments) with over 10 universities

worldwide, and multilateral mobility and scholarship programmes of diverse entities, such as the Lifelong Learning Programme (LLP) / ERASMUS, the programme funded by the Nordic Council of Ministers NORDPLUS (The Nordic Scheme for Mobility and Cooperation), the programme funded by Centre for International Mobility (CIMO) Finnish-Russian Student Exchange Programme (FIRST); the programme funded by the Finnish Ministry for Foreign Affairs NORTH-SOUTH-SOUTH (Higher Education Institution Network Programme, of cooperation with developing Africa countries) and programmes coordinated by other organisations, such as the Nordic Centre in India or the DAAD (German Academic Exchange Service).

The UTA has participated in the Erasmus programme since 1992, and considers the programme a strategic tool for establishing a European Higher Education Area. The UTA sends abroad 15% of its yearly graduation cohort on an Erasmus mobility period over recent years, half of it through the Erasmus programme. However, in the Erasmus Policy statement of the University of Tampere, one can read that *the focus is shifting from quantity to quality issues related to Erasmus activities* (EPS, p 1). In fact, “*UTA seeks to improve the quality of student mobility, e.g. by providing enhanced study counseling services, using the synergy between student and teacher mobility to benefit both, and by focusing more carefully on the selection of partner institutions*”. The programme is promoted in the UTA’s website, through meetings with coordinators and students organised by the International office, and in an International day on campus. The ECTS Information Package is published annually. To fully meet the standards of ECTS, UTA aims to improve the descriptions of course units in English and is creating a new course database for better on-line service of mobile students. Regarding mobility for staff, “*All teachers receive compensation for their mobility period. UTA strongly recommends that mobility is included in the annual working plan of each teacher. The International Office assists outgoing teachers with practical matters. Teaching in English courses are offered jointly with a regional HEI network. The overall aim is to deepen the commitment of staff to the targets of EHEA and to encourage them to utilise all actions in LLP*” (University of Tampere, 2007, p. 2)



## Language of instruction and English Taught Programmes at UTA

The official language of instruction at the University of Tampere is Finnish except for the study modules and course units introduced in this guide, which are taught in English or in other foreign languages. There are currently the following English Taught degree programs at UTA. Classification of field derives from Becher & Trowler's (2001) classification of disciplinary differences (see table in Appendix 1).

Table 7. English Degree Taught Programmes at UTA

Name	Website	Field	Qualification
Master's Programme in European and Russian Studies	<a href="http://www.uta.fi/laitokset/iss/ers/index.php">http://www.uta.fi/laitokset/iss/ers/index.php</a>	Soft applied	Master of Social Sciences
Joint Master's Programme in International Relations within Finnish-Russian Cross Border University (CBU)	<a href="http://www.uta.fi/iss/ers/">http://www.uta.fi/iss/ers/</a>	Soft Applied	Master of Social Sciences
Master's Degree Programme in Health Sciences (Public Health or International Health)	<a href="http://www.uta.fi/masters/healthsciences/">http://www.uta.fi/masters/healthsciences/</a>	Hard applied	Master of Science
MGE - European Master in Public Economics and Public Finance	<a href="http://www.mge-pepf.eu/">http://www.mge-pepf.eu/</a>	Hard applied	Master of Science
Master's in Business Competence	<a href="http://www.uta.fi/laitokset/jola/mbc/">http://www.uta.fi/laitokset/jola/mbc/</a>	Soft applied	Master of Philosophy
Joint Master's in Comparative Social Policy and Welfare	<a href="http://www.uta.fi/laitokset/iss">http://www.uta.fi/laitokset/iss</a>	Soft applied	Master of Social Sciences

Master's in Bioinformatics	<a href="http://bioinformatics.fi/">http://bioinformatics.fi/</a>	Hard applied	Master of Science
Master's in Interactive Technology *	<a href="http://www.cs.uta.fi/english/it/">http://www.cs.uta.fi/english/it/</a>	Hard applied	PhD
Master's Degree Programme in User Interface Software Development *	<a href="http://www.cs.uta.fi/english/uisd/">http://www.cs.uta.fi/english/uisd/</a>	Hard applied	PhD
Master's Degree Programme in Software Development *	<a href="http://www.cs.uta.fi/english/sd/">http://www.cs.uta.fi/english/sd/</a>	Hard applied	PhD
MAIPR Master's Degree Programme in International Performance Research (ERASMUS MUNDUS)	<a href="http://www2.warwick.ac.uk/fac/arts/theatre_s/postgraduate/maipr">http://www2.warwick.ac.uk/fac/arts/theatre_s/postgraduate/maipr</a>	Soft Applied	Master of Arts

\*Language studies in Finnish and Communication Studies (c. 6 ECTS credits) and English (c. 3-6 ECTS credits) must be included in the programme studies.

### Attitudes towards English medium of instruction at the UTA

The University of Tampere has two official languages: Finnish and English. All documents of the institution and website are translated in both languages. E-mail service is provided in several languages. Disciplinary units or non-degree programmes in English were common at UTA since its foundation. English taught degree programmes were only initiated after the Bologna process, that changed the structure of the first 2 cycles of higher education in order to be compatible in terms of length with other countries, since many courses only offered a master degree of 5 and half years, that was not equivalent to a master degree abroad. As for the third cycle of studies, Finnish higher education kept its specific structure: a licentiate degree, (*lisensiaatti*) granted after two years of postgraduate study, with the coursework similar to a doctoral degree, but with a lighter thesis work; and a doctoral degree with full

dissertation, that takes four years to complete. The restructuration of the Bologna process was completed in 2001, and since then English Taught programmes were granted at UTA. Curiously, three of the ETDP initiated in 2001 are the only ones that integrate mandatory Finnish and English studies in their curricula. All other master course on Table 7 do not have any mandatory language units in their study programmes.

Regarding internationalisation, the new strategy of UTA for 2010-2015 states that *“International teacher and student exchange will be increased through financial incentives and language training. The high level of international degree programmes will be ensured and the number of degrees taken by foreign students will be increased. International degree programmes will be arranged especially in the strong areas and jointly across disciplines”*(University of Tampere, 2010, p. 4). Also to coordinate international education programmes a center for international education will be launched.

## Chapter 5

### Interviews

The author performed 6 interviews, 3 at each institution. The author's main goal was to access views on English medium of instruction in relation with internationalisation, and also in relation to language policy at institutional level. The author has tried to choose people that had some contact with international students, either for activities performed at institution either for academic background, in order to have significative informants. For that the author interviewed 4 individuals categorised as non-academic staff and 2 academic staff individuals. Interviewees are anonymous; therefore they were given a letter for identification on the text quotations.

Table 8. Interviewees, professional type of activity and institution

University of Aveiro	Length of interview	Letter
Vice Rector	61'	A
International Relations officer	54'	B
Teaching staff	73'	C
University of Tampere		
International Relations officer	66'	D
International Relations officer	35'	E
Teaching staff	26'	F

#### The regulative pillar

Both institutions consider the Bologna process as a decisive fact in the introduction of English Taught Degree Programmes. In the case of Portugal, the Decree Law 74/ 2006 allowed higher education courses to be taught using Portuguese or English as a medium of instruction, which wasn't possible before, though some joint degrees (namely Erasmus Mundus) were already taught using English medium of instruction. Apart from that, and though the increased

importance of internationalisation due to the Bologna process, there is still no clear internationalisation strategy for universities, and A considers that *“even though all universities follow the Bologna reforms, universities are responsible for their actions, they are not dependent from what the government decides to do.”* Maybe because of that degree of freedom in the adoption of the Bologna declaration, C states *“if we analyse all the language programmes at UA since 2003 to 2008, we conclude that even with the Bologna Process and the internationalisation context behind it, the amount of language instruction is decreasing when the Bologna Documents aim exactly the opposite.”* The Bologna reform was only concluded in Portugal in 2009, and other higher education reforms that may have any impact on higher education institutions, such as the new quality assurance system, are also too recent to have an impact on curricular offer and internationalisation strategies of the institutions.

In the Finnish case, there were always Finnish curricular parts that could be taught in English, but they didn't award a degree. It was only after the adoption of the Bologna structure (far sooner than in Portugal) that master degree programmes in English were possible. As D explains *“We had an internationalisation strategy for education initiated by the government back in 1987, as the goals were a little different then. In those days, the Ministry thought that we should offer 2 year or one year programs in the areas that we could use some spear heads. (...). This strategy was outdated within a few years, and instead of programs we moved to mobility in 1992, to get and send mobility students. So we didn't even developed well the programmes, that were thought to give diplomas but they weren't masters like they are now, because back in those days, the finish master was 5 years, and u couldn't get a Finnish master in 2 years. Now with Bologna we can”.*

But in the Finnish case, the recent mergers of Universities and the implementation of fees on international programmes, on a trial basis, is the great concern of all interviewees. Universities have to be more competitive, for the rationale behind internationalisation is changing. As F observes, *“the idea was that international students could be good ambassadors of Finland. They can bring potential business. Opportunities. But the current rationale is because the Ministry is taking education as an industry. They are exporting education, as a product. The*

*are expecting to get some revenues from educating foreign students right away". D confirms, "the Ministry of Education is in favor of adopting a policy of fee paying costumers". And F also refers that "I think this process (fee introduction) will last 10 years, and in future we will have the same processes on an European level. Our policy makers are saying that we r going to be the only place in the world where we don't have any tuition fees".*

The fee is only going to be introduced in the courses that have scholarships associated and on master's level, such as the case of Erasmus Mundus. Even if this is so, it is expected that the number of foreign students decrease on short-term period. D thinks that fees introduction *"Definitely is not good advertisement. But again we follow the Scandinavian experience, we know that Denmark started to have fees paying policy, they had problems in the first years, but not anymore"*.

### **The normative pillar**

As previously discussed, language policy is generally linked to a normative perspective of reality. Most of the English Taught Degree Programmes in UA are Erasmus Mundus, and the effect of Europeanisation through mobility programmes is seen as something positive, as these are high quality masters that give prestige to the institution, as the UA also pursues the model of research university. As B refers *" the Erasmus programme has triggered a series of possibilities at the university in terms of mobility for teaching staff, other types of interaction between universities, creation of systems that improve mobility, study accreditation mechanisms, as ECTS, and as the European policies are developing, the UA follows"*.

Cosmopolitan views on education have also been referenced when adopting English taught programmes and B states that *"these programmes want to attract international students, but not only for economic rationales, but because Portuguese universities need to open up to the world. We need to collaborate with other universities to transfer knowledge, and allow our students to go study abroad and feel comfortable in multicultural contexts. (...) English taught programmes are needed for creating opportunities for foreign students to find a multicultural context for their training"*.

Also A refers that *“one cannot have institutions or a country, or a community open to the world if one doesn’t consider the linguistic factor. A language manages relationships. And the ones who are better managers are the ones that have better skills. And if we want our students to have capacity to act, we must give them skills. (...) only a small minority of students reaches the university with a good English level. But that doesn’t automatically translate into people able to act internationally. That’s why there’s a huge pressure for mobility”*. Also, C refers that *“I see language education as a sensibilisation to diversity. It is important that people attending higher education have the opportunity to study Chinese, or Russian, since is not only the question of being proficient in the language, is also the question of knowing the other, (...) Mobility supposes not only a language skill, but intercultural skills”*.

On the Finnish side, cosmopolitan concerns are also visible, and the ERASMUS participation is seen as something positive, as the policy documents illustrate. Also, the concern with quality is very connected with the need for internationalisation. E states that *“The most important thing is quality, and if you stay some time in other country, you have more ideas, and you know that Tampere is not the only place in the world. So internationalisation is needed for exchanging research methods, lifestyles...”*. F also sustains that *“Finland is a very export dependant country, so without export they don’t have enough money to support themselves, so they really need to open to the world. Adapt to the exterior is the only way to open to outsiders, rather than expecting everybody to learn Finnish. When they have an international programme, is also an opportunity to Finnish people to learn other cultures, and this an opportunity to train good ambassadors”*.

Changes in norms and values seem to be in transition, as higher education is moving from a free public good with granted access to Finnish and other nations citizens, to competitive settings with economic rationales, where some will have to pay. D referred that benchmarking partially caused by the Bologna process is expected to cause some effects Finnish higher education quality assurance: *“Our education is not competitive enough, and I don’t think that after the fee adoption our international students numbers will be the same as before. It will have a negative repercussion. And cost efficiency I don’t know what kind of impact will have on quality. The next step will be that quality assurance system will be the same in all western*

*world, partially because of Bologna, because if you are asked to produce more masters and doctors and no additional resources are added, it will happen sooner or later at the expense of quality”.*

### **The cognitive-cultural pillar**

Institutional culture seems to weight when choosing the disciplinary area of English taught degree programmes. In UA case, all the programmes are in the hard applied field, which is justified for B as “ *the UA is an university with a lot of technical courses, that were the first and more time to mature, and the excellence areas of the university are physics, engineering, materials, and those were the areas that attracted the international partners, since there is a research culture*”. When questioned if there are some areas that are more likely to be adapted to English medium instruction, A also referred Engineering and Business.

Another aspect of the growing curricular internationalisation at UA is the presence of many foreign language texts and books on reading lists. C notices, “ *Our students arrive at the university and complain that the reading lists have too much English books, or one French text. The recommendations of the Council of Europe are that one learns at least two foreign languages. In my perspective, secondary education is not enough to do so*”.

In the Finnish case, institutional culture seems to be also strong when choosing the disciplinary field that should be internationalised. D mentions that “ *After implementing the mobility, we found out that that is just a part of internationalisation, and that we should have programs too. And so the first program was in Social Sciences, also because we have always been a Social Sciences strong university*”. In fact, the masters taught in English in the institution are related either with strong disciplinary areas at UTA, as information technologies and social sciences, or related with the cultural affinity with neighbor countries like Russia. In fact, D sustains that “*although we have no problem with the EU countries in terms of mobility and cooperation, we shouldn’t forget the areas in Baltic and North Western Russia, closest to us*”. E also referred that “*health sciences, computer sciences, are easy products (to be taught*



*in English). And we have not talked about our PISA, but education planning could be a good export for us”.*

In terms of construction of curricula for English Taught programmes, it was also mentioned that there's more to it than the simple translation of contents, since the vast majority of programmes are joint degrees and the curricula need to be negotiated with all partners. It is that negotiation that creates an international programme, but not only. D refers *“Joint programmes as we have are really difficult to administer, because they require a lot of negotiation and double decision making. All the stakeholders have to agree with the curriculum, which makes the work hard, but worth doing. But that's one way to internationalise the curriculum and get new elements. On the other hand, there's no sense in giving tuition in English when all the participants are Finnish. Internationalisation at home is also possible, and for that reason we must have international students at the same time”.*

Finally, it is observable a trend toward interdisciplinarity is observed in English medium instruction programmes, which also adds to the innovative character of the majority of them.

## **Effects on the structure of organisations**

### **Social structure**

Both institutions recognised the importance of English taught programmes, and that is visible in the policy documents of both universities, since the plan of activities for 2010 of UA or the strategic plan of UTA mention the increase of English tuition as a goal in the near future. Both institutions have an International Office, but the UTA is even considering launching an International Education Center to deal exclusively with international education programmes, since they are managing a higher volume than the UA.

### **Goals**

Both institutions recognise that the major goal of having English Taught programmes is fostering international cooperation while supporting intercultural skills, but in the case of UTA competitive rationales are becoming more prominent, due to the recently introduced fees.

However, both institutions agree that the lack of marketing strategies is hindering the promotion of English Taught Programmes. In the case of UA, there is no promotion material and not even a website section dedicated to English Taught Programmes. B states that *“The way the UA promotes its English Taught programmes should be articulated with and internationalisation strategy, but the university hasn’t reached that point yet, and it still hasn’t created a marketing strategy to attract international students and researchers. We use networks as our means of promotion we contact our partner institutions and expect students to come to us “*. Also, A mentions that *“people choose to come to Portugal or Spain more easily than to Scandinavia. Because of the weather, because food, because of money. Maybe that’s why we also have low outgoing mobility. There’s a natural attractiveness to Iberic countries. It should be interesting to know what potential mobility students look for. Is not necessarily quality”*. It is possible that the natural attractiveness of the country compensates for the lack of promotion in the short term.

In the Finnish context, where CIMO promotes nationally English Taught Programmes, and there are several promotion materials in paper and a website dedicated to English Taught Programmes, the UTA still feels it doesn’t have the marketing tools required to promote themselves. In the words of E *“ Nowadays, all universities in Finland are state universities, not private. And this can be a reason why they don’t develop marketing more. Marketing according to tradition has 3 P’s and we only have 2 P’s. Good product, good process, after that promotion is easy”*. It was mentioned that in order to promote international programmes, it was important to promote the country itself, since not only quality motivates student’s choices. Also D: *“Conquering the world is not possible for Finnish universities. We are not attractive as Gothenburg or Stockholm universities, because they are better in marketing. I don’t know if there are significant differences in scientific contents, but they are world-renowned compared to Finnish universities. The only one that is known in Finland is the University of Helsinki. That’s why we started the mergers of universities. Our governments want to raise the quality level of our university, to raise the institutional profile (...). We don’t advertise because we don’t have money for that. So far it depends on the university how much money is given to advertise masters programmes, in this university the amount is zero. Now*

*we should have money for programmes and adds, and to get all this, we should have fees. We don't have expertise in marketing”.*

## **Participants**

English taught programmes require English proficiency from academics and students. Both institutions have foreign personnel, academic staff and support staff, though only now Portuguese laws are becoming more flexible in order to captivate more outside critical mass. However, it was mentioned that the lack of English proficiency of Portuguese academics was an obstacle to the creation of more English Taught programmes, which is also confirmed by Veiga, Rosa, & Amaral study of 2005. Programmes that have English medium of instruction in Aveiro are directed mostly to international students and have special funding. Foreign students are “ (...) *integrated in our courses with Portuguese students, that's one of the objectives of mobility, to socialise with the other and to have a common experience*” (A).

The situation regarding academics in Finland is different, since English medium of instruction is very common and academics are comfortable with it. Regarding students, some English Taught Programmes have Finnish and foreign students, that have integration activities upon arrival.

## **Technology**

English taught programmes demand great language domain both from teachers and staff. However, almost none of them include on the curricula any mandatory unit of English language. English proficiency is a selection condition in order to enter the programme (proof is generally a language certificate from a language school), and no further training is given for that matter. Only 3 master courses in Finland have mandatory English. F mentions that “*We provide some optional courses for the students to improve the language and in different classes we have the same standards of evaluation for everybody. You are in the same level of*

*English, you are evaluating the thinking not the language.*” It is interesting how the domain of a technology is not taken into account when it allows the individual to improve his expression.

In Portugal, in the case of UA it was mentioned also that language training is decreasing from curricula. C considers that *“this has to do with the restructuring of curricula but also with the perception the academic community has about the importance of having or not having languages in the courses. (...) one always wonders if the teachers are ready to teach in a language that is not their own, if the students are ready to receive classes in a language that’s not the native language, in which some had 7 years of instruction and others 3 or 4?”*.

The equity problem regarding language domain is posed, as also it can be posed the question of leaving to language schools the mission of teaching language skills, since not all can afford them. Because has A mentions, *“ the young middle high class all have computers and went to a language school. But that’s a minority”*.

Regarding academics, also no support training is given, though in the Portuguese case this seems to be a hindering factor. A considers that *“if there was funding directly destined to pay professors for them to have more time to spend on English, there could be more English taught courses. But that wouldn’t solve the problem of people having little awareness of that necessity”*. In the Finnish case, a system of continuing education in language training will be implemented, according to the Finnish internationalisation strategy.

## **Views on language policy**

Since language policy is simultaneously a normative and a cultural cognitive construct, I decided to address it separately in this section. Views on the need of language policy are very different in both institutions. The UA clearly recognised in its policy documents that it has no language policy, but that future developments are favorable to the introduction of one, on an institutional level. Also, Portuguese language is one the most spoken languages in the world, and the proposal of a language policy must have that in consideration. The interviewees confirm this. B states: *“ If we say that English language should be the “lingua franca” of*

*higher education, there will many people who don't agree with that." A informs that "We think that the Portuguese language is an international language of great importance, so the objective is to conciliate the Portuguese language to relate to Brazil, African countries, and other parts of the world, and English language, that will open doors and allow more productivity and efficiency in our relations with Europe and Asia. (...) I don't know if that will mean that we will have a written language policy. (...) But I know that before we need to understand how can languages contribute to execute this changes we want to do (in order to have more international visibility". C considers that "there are no recommendations on a national level about language policy, but if there were, it would be more easy for each university to appropriate them to elaborate its own language policy, more or less explicit. In Portugal there's no educational language policy because we are considered a monolingual country. (...) but that isn't true, we have a lot of immigrants". Also A considers that "language policy makes more sense in contexts where there is a great linguistic diversity. I wouldn't say that we have low diversity, but I think we haven't reached the point where we have to deal with it in a proactive, positive way".*

Generally, it is considered that having a language policy would be a way of reckoning the importance of language. A states that *"one cannot oblige people to learn, but one can give importance to things. And the ones who already know English could learn other language"*.

The Finnish university in the sample considers having an implicit language policy in higher education, introduced by the government and followed by institution. This policy has all documents in Finnish and in English, surprisingly not in Swedish, though Swedish is the second official language in Finland. However, this policy is not written. And apparently, there's no need to do so. D considers that it is important to have a language policy but *"to certain extent we already have the basic principles of a language policy. In this country I don't know about the existence of an international program that is taught through other language than English. And in many countries is like that"*. It is visible that the discussion of language policy comes associated with nationalistic issues, and that the idea of having a language policy is linked to aggressiveness towards the other. D thinks *"Perhaps like in other aspects of internationalisation, we follow Nordic countries but a few years later. This*

*discussion is starting here too. But I'm not concerned about that. There are certain nationalistic purism ideals in the thought of defending Finnish language, against the influence of Germanic languages for instance. But we don't have any protective legislation like in France and we probably never will, given our cultural nature. Is just that defending cultural heritage through legislation is nonsense. We have to trust our heritage by itself".*

E also considers that *"As you know, it is difficult to say what is language policy. Depends, is you ask a teacher of English, is very important, and for me is not important at all. Because you have been here, as you know, we have two official languages. In UTA, we have Finnish and English, and that's our language policy".* In the words of D, *"Because we try to have all services for all students in the same level, no distinguish between Finnish and foreign students. We have over 1000 students who don't speak, read or write Finnish. That's why we don't need any policy: it is real life".*

Finally, C, foreign professor at UTA, observes: *"I think Finnish people are really open, and they realise that they are a small country with a difficult language. They encourage people to speak even when they don't speak well, something that never happens in UK or USA. They don't expect foreigners to come here and know everything about the language. Finns have their own traditions, and they have very strong identity, but they don't see that ETDP are a menace".*

In practice one can observe that Finland behaves like a monolingual country with a strong orientation towards internationalisation, where English is used as a business tool. In the words of E, *"Finnish is a language spoken by 5 million people, it is a living language. But has you know, we make paper and we make phones. And we have to sell them. English for us is a tool, it is for survival. That's my personal opinion".*

## Conclusion

This section will try to resume the main conclusions of this study, while answering the research questions indicated in the first chapter.

Many differences can be found between ETDP in Finland and in Portugal. If nowadays, Finland offers 181 higher education degrees under these conditions, Portugal offers a much lower number of degrees, however not so short as the (Wachter & Maiworm, 2008) study indicated. There are at least 25 Erasmus Mundus masters in Portugal, taught through English, and a few other masters and PhD's that are consequence of international partnerships with MIT and Carnegie Mellon universities. Curiously, Finland also participates in 25 Erasmus Mundus degrees, which could be an indicator that the supranational Europeanisation pressures are affecting both countries equally. The quantitative difference between ETDP offer in both countries can be attributed to a more proactive role of the Finnish state in implementing an internationalisation strategy. In fact, if one can observe some concern of the Portuguese state with the internationalisation of research, the teaching aspect is not receiving the same attention, and the type and amount of ETDP in Portugal only confirms the observation of Veiga, Rosa, & Amaral, (2005, p. 113) *“most of the internationalisation efforts and activities are linked to European mobility programmes, which are supranational and certainly the driving force of internationalisation”*. In short, if in Finland, is the government that fosters the creation of so many ETDP, in Portugal are the institutions themselves that look for opportunities to do so. However, even if there is a high number of ETDP in Finland, only 23 % of these courses are considered to be international, or to have an international curriculum, since they are double or joint degrees. The majority of Finnish ETDP are evaluated as translations of Finnish regular curriculum, since according to the interviews, developing a real international curriculum requires a lot of resources that the institutions do not have. Therefore, is also expectable that most of the international ETDP are also Erasmus Mundus in Finland, since these programmes have special funding by the EU. Both in Portugal the vast majority are joint degrees, since most of them are Erasmus Mundus.

Aims of launching ETDP in both countries fit into the emerging rationale “raising the institutional profile”(Knight, 2007): the universities in the sample both pursue the research university model, and by offering ETDP they seek to improve their institutional profile, and benchmark with an idea of international quality that is associated with ETDP. In Finland, economic rationales are a new concern, due to governmental policies that aim at transforming education in one of the country’s exports, even if the new policies have some undesirable side effects. In fact, charging fees to international courses, even just in the ones that have scholarships associated, signals the introduction of inequalities in Finnish society, and may lower the number of international students in the country. Castells & Himanen (2002) have alerted that the deepening integration of the EU based on global dominating trend of advancing economy at the cost of welfare state maybe Finland’s biggest challenge. In Portugal, social cultural rationales are more evocated and intercultural understanding and citizenship development are the main focus.

Both countries also agree that they lack marketing and communication strategies associated with the programmes, even though they are in totally different levels of need. In Finland, CIMO promotes all the ETDP of the nation, and institutions have their own promotion materials. In Portugal, nor there is a quantitative study of ETDP, nor they are promoted nationally or locally through any promotion materials or websites. Still, both institutions feel they lack the “know how” to give visibility to ETDP, and this concern with visibility maybe a sign of an increased competitive dimension in internationalisation, in which not only value (quality) but also perception of that value is required.

It is also felt in both countries that more English training would be desirable in order to increase ETDP, again, even if both countries are in very distinct levels of proficiency with the language. In Portugal, the insufficient training of both students and staff is indicated as a factor that makes the expansion of English Taught Programmes. But if in Finland, the government is paying attention to continuing training in foreign language of teachers and students, in Portugal it seems that foreign language instruction has decreased in HEI’s, as indicated by Pinto’s study (Pinto & Araujo e Sá, 2010), even if European recommendations go in the inverse sense. Also, the lower numbers of Portuguese students participating in mobility



programmes abroad could be also caused partially to low confidence of students in their ability to communicate in foreign language. The low numbers of outgoing Portuguese students is worrying, since as Altbach, Reisberg, & Rumbley (2009) put it, it is urgent that opportunities for mobility are available to all equally, since students and scholars most likely to take advantage of these opportunities are the socially privileged and wealthiest. And when universities put language training only accessible to those who can pay for private schools, they are contributing to more inequalities.

Regarding language policy, both countries stand in very distinct situations. If in Finland, it is understood and agreed that the government and HEI's have two working languages, Finnish and English, in Portugal, no clear indication is given by the government in that sense, and only after Bologna universities felt the need to increase transparency in their communications, by for instance, translating the websites. By observing the data, one can conclude that Finland has an implicit language policy in their HE system, and feels no need of a written policy regarding that matter, for practice has already established a rule. A written policy could awaken hidden nationalistic values that hinder Finnish internationalisation, and as Castells & Himanen (2002) suggest, Finnish strong national identity must be concealed with openness to global networks, if it seeks economic and cultural growth. Therefore, language-policy debates are always about more than language, and insights from political, economic, and social theory can provide the tools to explain the effects of certain approaches (Ricento, 2006). In the case of Portugal, the need for a language policy is seen as a resource to put language on the agenda on internationalisation policies, since it seems its importance is decreasing. In the absence of a practice or training that fosters languages on a plurilinguistic perspective, positive discrimination seems to be a solution to address the need of rethinking the role of language.

Considering the role of language policy in internationalisation requires an analysis of the concept of language as a code with various forms (written, spoken), functions (and the status associated with them) and values. If one assumes that language is not a discrete variable, and that it suffers changes and influences from the environment as well, it would be more appropriate to speak of discourses rather than languages. In this context, having a multiplicity of functions and uses, the effects of shifts in language policy can be positive or negative: they

can lead to an unbalance in the Finnish case, if they reach explicit rules, or they can lead to more social justice in the Portuguese case, if they foster mobility among students. Therefore, *“it is not possible to assume or predict a particular, or even necessary, relation between a given language (or language variety) and the role(s) it might play in a given setting, whether local or national/supranational”* (Ricento, 2006, p. 4). However, the debate of language policy is the key to establish concerted actions in this matter, and to achieve productive practices. The contemporary transformation of nation states, and the migration fluxes and cross border influences are changing the rule of language policy only being discussed in countries where tensions between several linguistic groups are at stake. Multilingualism is seen as an advantage in an increased globalised world, and if arguments in favor of a global language are many, language diversity should be supported, not only because the economy landscape is changing, but also because of our respect for cultural equality. Thus, more research is needed on this topic, and it is recommended a systematic official study of the Portuguese case in particular. Such quantitative study could assess not only the number of ETDP, but also their promotion, sustainability, student target and frequency, as well as major challenges experienced by institutions and teachers while providing English language instruction. Such study could provide data that would enable this analysis to go further, allowing more abstract conclusions about this topic, applicable perhaps to a wider context.

Finally, it seems that a close observation of higher education language learning practices would also be of great help in the understanding of language policy. According to Shohamy (2006), language education policies can be seen as instruments for creating de facto language policies, and fluctuations on language education are more derived to ideological and political concerns than to pedagogical ones. This is also one of the functions of the education system, to consolidate the national identity, and therefore, the one size fits all approach to education is not producing the same effects, as it ignores site-specific characteristics both from knowledge and its actors. Regarding language education in European schools, a recent study indicates that in 13 European countries English is a mandatory foreign language, and that even when it isn't, most students will learn it by choice (Eurydice, 2009). But also the same study reveals great regional differences when it comes to learning a foreign language, since Eastern European countries are more likely to learn German, and southern European countries are more likely to

learn French, even if English instruction is rising in all countries. Unfortunately similar data are not available for higher education in Europe, at least regarding language education, and this could also be a possible pathway for future research. Geographical and demographical study of language learning could contribute to balance the inequalities in such matters and provide more opportunity to a participative citizenship, as language debates are also about empowering the less visible.

Overall, this study confirmed that organisational changes such as the introduction of English medium of instruction programmes are caused by a matrix of factors associated with the coercive, normative and mimetic dimensions of organisational behaviour. There is certainly a degree of isomorphism in the aspirations of both universities (the pursuit of international recognised quality, the pursuit of the research university model) that lead to the launching of English Taught degree programmes, such as Erasmus Mundus masters. On the other hand, local contexts and cultural heritage are still so powerful that they originate totally diverse landscapes regarding the European spread of English. These differences may not be just a matter of pace, but also of particular values that are defended by local communities. In this sense, the author suggests that neo-institutionalism theory applies to certain extent, but that future research could gain heuristically by being crossed with cultural studies, or even critical theory approaches. It is worth to take the time to reflect about the purpose of the introduction of English medium instruction, not adopting too fast external trends branded as modern to public eyes. As Calhoun (2007) defends, some projects rooted in tradition can be forward looking; rather than a choice of cosmopolitanism over traditionalism, one should aim at transforming cosmopolitanism into a more fair and socially connected perspective. In the case of language, it translates into tailored and diverse policies.

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# Appendix 1

## Interview guide

- 1- Which programmes does your institution offer with English medium instruction?
- 2- What is the international dimension of those programmes? How are these programmes promoted among students?
- 3- Who has had the initiative of launching these programmes?
- 4- Do you think in the future there will be more programmes taught in English?
- 5- What are the advantages and disadvantages of having these sort of programmes? Do you think if there was more funding, there would be more programmes like these?
- 6- Do you think there's a need of developing a language policy for higher education? If so, who should be responsible for developing it? Why did you started to launch these programmes?
- 7- What do you think is the role of language in internationalisation of your university?
- 8- Do you think there would be benefits in expanding the number of English taught Programmes? What conditions do you think are needed to do so?
- 9- Do you think some disciplines have more easy/have more advantages to be taught in English?

## Appendix 2

### Knowledge and disciplinary grouping (Becher & Trowler, 2001)

Disciplinary groupings	Nature of knowledge	Nature of disciplinary culture
Pure sciences (e.g., physics): 'hard-pure'	Cumulative; atomistic (crystalline/tree-like); concerned with universals, quantities, simplification; resulting in discovery/explanation	Competitive, gregarious; politically well organised; high publication rate; task oriented
Humanities (e.g., history) and pure social sciences (e.g., anthropology): 'soft-pure'	Reiterative; holistic (organic/river-like); concerned with particulars, qualities, complication; resulting in understanding/interpretation	Individualistic, pluralistic; loosely structured; low publication rate; person oriented
Technologies (e.g., mechanical engineering, clinical medicine): 'hard-applied'	Purposeful; pragmatic (know-how via hard knowledge); concerned with mastery of physical environment; resulting in products/techniques	Entrepreneurial, cosmopolitan; dominated by professional values; patents substitutable for publications; role oriented
Applied social science (e.g., education, law, social administration): 'soft-applied'	Functional; utilitarian (know-how via soft knowledge); concerned with enhancement of (semi-) professional practice; resulting in protocols/procedures	Outward-looking; uncertain in status; dominated by intellectual fashions; publication rates reduced by consultancies; power-oriented